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**THE**  
**HISTORY OF ENGLAND,**  
**DURING THE**  
**REIGN OF GEORGE III.**

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**VOL. III.**



THE  
HISTORY OF ENGLAND,  
DURING  
THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.  
BEING  
A CONTINUATION  
TO  
HUME AND SMOLLETT.

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BY WILLIAM JONES,  
AUTHOR OF THE BIBLICAL CYCLOPÆDIA, HISTORY OF THE  
WALDENSES, &c. &c.

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IN THREE VOLUMES.

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**CHAPTER I.**

1805.

THE commencement of the year 1805 was distinguished by an overture for peace, comprised in a letter from the newly appointed emperor of France, dated 2d January, addressed personally to the king of Great Britain. Some little elation arising from his recent exaltation was obvious in his present, as it had also been in his former epistle, announcing his advancement to the consular dignity: yet it contained sentiments of which the greatest monarch would have no reason to be ashamed. "My first wish," said he, "is for PEACE. I consider it as no disgrace to make the first step; and certainly there never was a moment more favourable to silence all the passions, and listen only to the sentiments of humanity and reason. The world is sufficiently large for our two nations to live in it; and reason is sufficiently powerful to discover means of reconciling, when

the wish for reconciliation exists on both sides. I have fulfilled a sacred duty, and trust your Majesty will believe in the sincerity of my sentiments, and my wish to give you every proof of it."

The reply of the English government, dated January 14th, was decorous in its language, but wholly evasive; and not the slightest wish was expressed of farther explanation. Lord Mulgrave, who had now succeeded lord Harrowby as secretary of state for foreign affairs, replied to the emperor's communication, in a letter to M. Talleyrand, to the following effect: "His Majesty has received the letter, addressed to him by the Head of the French government, dated the 2d of the present month. There is no object that his Majesty has more at heart, than to avail himself of the first opportunity to procure again for his subjects the advantages of a peace, which may not be incompatible with the permanent security and essential interests of his dominions. His Majesty is persuaded that this end can only be attained by arrangements, which may at the same time provide for the future safety and tranquillity of Europe, and prevent the recurrence of the dangers and calamities in which it is involved. Conformably to this sentiment, his Majesty feels it is impossible for him to answer more particularly to the overture that has been made him, till he has had time to communicate with the powers on the continent with whom he is engaged in confidential connexions and relations, and particularly the emperor of Russia."

In the interval which elapsed between the date of the overture and the answer, Mr Pitt was engaged in strengthening his administration, by means of a reconciliation with the minister whom he had so lately superseded. On the 12th of January Mr Addington was created viscount Sidmouth, and appointed president of the council, on the resignation of the duke of Portland; lord Mulgrave, foreign secretary; the earl of Buckinghamshire, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster; and Mr Vansittart, with other friends of lord Sidmouth, were sworn of the privy-council.

The session of parliament commenced on the 15th of January, by a speech from the throne, informing the two houses A. D. 1805. of the rupture with Spain. The speech then went on to say, that "notwithstanding the general conduct of the French government, on the continent of Europe, had been marked by the utmost violence and outrage, repugnant to every sentiment of moderation and justice, he had recently received a communication from that government, containing professions of a pacific disposition, respecting which he had not thought it right to enter into any particular explanation, without previous communication with the powers of the continent, and especially with the emperor of Russia."

Mr Fox observed, that the speech left them entirely in the dark as to the grounds of his Majesty's refusal to negotiate; and, after the censures thus passed on the violent and unjust con-



duct of France, he hoped that no imputation of a similar nature would be found chargeable on our own government. After some discussions, the addresses passed without a division.

On the 11th February the important question relative to the war with Spain came under parliamentary investigation. The address of approbation moved by the minister was opposed by Mr Grey, who proposed an amendment, amounting in fact to another address, affirming, "that ministers had never made a distinct statement of the terms on which Great Britain would consent to recognize the neutrality of Spain; and that while the dispositions of Spain still appeared friendly, concealed orders were given for the attack on the Spanish ships, not justifiable on any ground of public law, and much less on those principles of moderation and liberality which belong to the British character." In the course of the debate, this attack was compared with that so generally reprobated, of the Smyrna fleet, in the reign of king Charles II. On the division the votes were, for the amendment 106, against it 313.

In the house of peers, lord Grenville, in a speech of great ability, reprobated the proceedings of ministers as barbarous and unjust. "The laws of civilized war," said his lordship, "allowed no such act of violence as that which had been committed in assaulting the Spanish ships on the high seas. This had been assimilated to an embargo; but was there no difference between delaying merchant vessels, which might be delivered

back, and destroying ships navigating the ocean in supposed security? Who can restore the innocent blood that has been spilt? No capture of treasure could wash away the stain thus brought upon our arms." An amendment to the address, moved by earl Spenser, was negatived by 114 to 36 voices; the prince of Wales, through the medium of his proxy given to the earl of Moira, voting in the minority.

The supplies for the year amounted to about forty-four millions, of which twenty millions were raised by a loan, the subscribers to which received for L.100 in money, L.172 in three per cent stock. Another loan of three millions and a half was negotiated for Ireland. A considerable addition was made to the war taxes, and the property tax was raised to six and a quarter per cent. The new taxes imposed in perpetuity were estimated at L.1,600,000; and the minister, while in the act of thus heavily adding to the weight of the public burdens, concluded an eloquent speech by congratulating the house on the increasing prosperity of the country.

In the course of this session, proceedings were instituted against a member of administration, which for a long time very strongly engaged the public attention. In the month of April a charge was exhibited against lord Melville, first lord of the admiralty, founded on the tenth report of the commissioners of naval inquiry. It was brought before the house of commons by Mr Whitbread, who, after referring to the act in 1785

for regulating the department of the treasurer of the navy, of which lord Melville, then occupying that post, was himself the supporter, and which advanced the salary of the place from L.2000 to L.4000, in lieu of all emoluments which might previously have been derived from the public money in the treasurer's hands, stated three heads of charge bearing upon him. These were: His applying the money of the public to other uses than those of the naval department; his conniving at a system of speculation in an individual (Mr Trotter) for whose conduct he was responsible; and his having been a participator in that speculation. He concluded a speech, in which the particular circumstances of the case were laid open, by moving a number of resolutions founded upon it.

Mr Pitt, after observing that there was nothing in the report of the commissioners which implied that any mischief had arisen to the public from the circumstances complained of, objected to the method of proceeding now proposed, and thought the best course that could be pursued would be, to refer the report to a select committee. He therefore moved an amendment to that purpose, which he afterwards changed, on the suggestion of Mr Fox, for a motion for the previous question. The debate was now continued, and on a division of the house, there appeared for Mr Whitbread's motion 216, against it 216, when the speaker gave his casting vote in its favour. Mr Whitbread then moved an address to the king, requesting him to

remove lord Melville from his councils and person for ever ; but, at the desire of Mr Pitt, he agreed to postpone the motion to a future day. When that day arrived, the house was informed that lord Melville had resigned his office of first lord of the admiralty, and also that Mr Trotter had been dismissed from that of paymaster to the navy. It being suggested that there was at least a possibility of lord Melville's restoration, Mr Pitt said that he had no hesitation in declaring, that all idea of the noble lord's return to power was completely annihilated. The debate at that time terminated in an unanimous vote that the resolutions be laid before his Majesty by the whole house. It was afterwards announced, that lord Melville's name had been erased from the list of the privy-council.

After various proceedings had taken place, his lordship requested to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, respecting the matter contained in the report of the commissioners. On this occasion he acknowledged having appropriated the public money intrusted to him to other public purposes, but solemnly denied having derived any benefit therefrom, or that he had participated in the profits made by Mr Trotter. He confessed, however, that he had applied the sum of L.10,000 in a way which he could not reveal, consistently with private honour and public duty. When his lordship had withdrawn, Mr Whitbread moved for his impeachment, which was negatived by a majority of 272 to 195 ; and an amendment

moved by Mr Bond, for a criminal prosecution, passed by the small majority of 238 to 229. His lordship's friends, however, soon after finding reason to prefer an impeachment, a motion for that purpose was made by Mr Leycester, which, after Mr Fox's motion for the previous question had been negatived, was carried without a division. Mr Whitbread, accordingly, accompanied by a great number of members, on the 26th of June impeached lord Melville, in the name of the commons of Great Britain, at the bar of the house of lords.

A bill of a very problematical nature subsequently passed, to indemnify Alexander Trotter, and all others called upon to give evidence on the trial of lord Melville, from civil actions. The trial itself, on account of the lateness of the session, was postponed to the following year. Lord Melville was succeeded in the admiralty by sir Charles Middleton, an officer long experienced in the department, upon whom was conferred the title of lord Barham. But the loss of so able a colleague as lord Melville, from a cause so unexpected, caused deep and lasting chagrin to Mr Pitt, upon whom almost the whole weight of business now devolved ; and his health, previously infirm, suffered a manifest depression.

A petition from the Roman Catholics of Ireland, to be relieved from the civil disabilities under which they laboured, was, on the 10th of May, introduced into the house of lords by lord Grenville, and into the commons by Mr Fox. The principal speakers on each side took a part in the

debate, but the result was a rejection of the petition, in the upper house, by a majority of 178 against 49 ; and in the commons, of 336 against 124. Mr Pitt had professedly quitted the ministry in 1801, on account of his inability to carry this measure. On the present occasion, having asserted his opinion, that, since the union of the kingdoms, he saw none of those dangers from granting the claims of the petitioners which many seemed to apprehend, and that circumstances had rendered it impossible for him to bring forward the measure at the time he thought most favourable for it ; he added, that what those circumstances were, it was neither now nor then necessary for him to explain ; but as long as they should continue to operate, he should feel it a duty, not only not to bring forward, but not to be a party in bringing forward, or in agitating this very important question. At present, he must say, that the prevailing sentiment was totally against it ; and being convinced that this was not the time when it was most prudent to agitate the subject, for these reasons he should give a decided negative to the motion.

On the 19th June a message from the throne was brought to parliament, the object of which was to acquaint the houses, that the communications which had taken place between his Majesty and some of the continental powers, had not yet been brought to such a point as to enable him to lay the result before parliament ; but that, conceiving it might be of essential importance that

he should have it in his power to avail himself of any favourable conjuncture for forming such a concert with other powers, as might afford the best means of resisting the inordinate ambition of France, his Majesty recommended to parliament to consider of making provision for entering into such engagements as the exigency of affairs might require. The result of this message was the grant of a sum not exceeding three millions and a half, for that specific purpose. On the 12th of July, parliament was prorogued by commission.

The public events of the year, political and military, place it among the most interesting in the history of the war. In France, the greatest activity was exerted in preparations for the menaced invasion of England. The flotilla of Boulogne was continually augmenting, and the troops encamped in its vicinity were accumulated to upwards of 100,000 men, perfectly disciplined, and placed under the command of some of the ablest generals in the French service. Squadrons of French ships, which had hitherto been cautiously kept in port, were now hazarded out to sea, in order to divide the British naval force; while greater enterprises were projected by the junction of the Spanish and French fleets. On the other hand, adequate means of resistance were provided on this side the Channel. The coast on the south of England was fortified on the most exposed parts by a range of martello towers, and every effort was made for increasing the forces by sea and land.

One of the first enterprises of the French was an attempt on the island of Dominica, with an armament of five sail of the line and three frigates, having on board 4000 troops. A landing was effected on the 22d of February, and the commander proceeded to Prince Rupert's, where the governor of the island, general Prevost, had posted himself with all the force he could muster. Having been summoned without effect, the French, who had levied a contribution on the inhabitants of Roseau, in the attack upon it set the town on fire, and then reembarked on the 27th. The armament then proceeded to St Christopher's, where a landing was made and a contribution exacted. The same was done at the island of Nevis; after which the squadron returned to France from an expedition, the success of which was by no means adequate to the equipment.

Napoleon, who with the Gallic empire seems to have regarded himself as invested with the pretensions of a successor to Charlemagne, now determined to place on his head the iron crown of Italy in conjunction with the imperial diadem. With this view he procured addresses to be presented to him from the various constituted authorities of the Italian, or late Cisalpine republic, entreating him to remedy, in person, the defects of their constitution. When this had prepared the way for it, he set out early in the month of May for Milan, accompanied by his empress, and was received wherever he passed with the highest honours. On the 26th of that month he



announced his compliance with the humble request of the States, that he would take upon him the title and authority of king of Italy; and his coronation was performed at Milan with the greatest pomp and solemnity. At the ceremony he took from the altar the iron crown of Italy with his own hands, and placed it upon his head. By the terms of a new constitutional code framed for the country, the privilege was conferred upon him of nominating a successor to the crown, which, however, was afterwards to be hereditary, under certain limitations, and was not again to be united to the imperial crown of France. He might also govern by a viceroy; and before his departure he nominated to that post his step-son, Eugene Beauharnois.

During the visit to Italy, Napoleon accomplished another important political object, namely, the annexation of the Ligurian republic to the French empire. The Doge of Genoa, who was present at the coronation in Milan, having expressed the desire of the republic to become a subject of the great Napoleon, a gracious answer was returned, in which was explicitly declared his purpose respecting a maritime code. "You will find," said he, "a flag which, whatever may be the pretensions of my enemies, I will maintain, on all the seas of the universe, constantly free from insult and from search, and exempt from the right of blockade, which I will never recognize but for places really blockaded as well by sea as by land. You will find yourselves

sheltered under it from this shameful slavery, the existence of which I reluctantly suffer with respect to weaker nations, but from which I will always guarantee my subjects."

A plan for a new constitution was, in the month of March, presented to the legislative body of the Batavian republic by the state directory, which was accepted by the people; and M. Schimmelpenninck being elected first pensionary, he opened the session of the States-general on the 15th May. All the forms of an independent government were preserved; but the influence of France was apparent in a proclamation soon after issued, by which all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, and the admission, direct or indirect, of all articles of British manufacture, were strictly prohibited.

The negotiations between the courts of London and Petersburg, which were alluded to in the king's speech at the beginning of the year, terminated in a treaty, signed on the 11th of April, by which the emperor of Russia and the king of England reciprocally bound themselves to use the most efficacious means for forming a general league of the states of Europe, for the purpose of putting a stop to the encroachments of the French government, and securing the independence of the different states. Sweden and Austria had entered into the same views; but they declined proceeding to hostilities, till an attempt to attain the objects of the alliance by negotiation should have proved abortive. A Russian

envoy was in consequence deputed to France, who had advanced as far as Berlin on his way, when the intelligence of the annexation of Genoa to France produced his immediate recall. This event determined Austria to become a member of the league; and a treaty for that purpose was signed by her plenipotentiary at Petersburg on the 9th of August. At the same time a note was addressed by the Austrian ambassador at Paris to the French minister for foreign affairs, expressing the desire of his court to concur with those of London and Petersburg in their endeavours to promote a general pacification. A correspondence followed, of reciprocal professions and accusations, which terminated in having recourse to arms as the only arbiter.

The emperor Napoleon, in whose warlike plans promptitude was always the leading feature, determined to strike a home blow at his Austrian antagonist before he could be joined by the Russians. Renouncing his project, therefore, of the invasion of England, he dismantled his flotilla at Boulogne, broke up the greater part of his camp in that quarter, and having augmented his army in Italy, he drew the bulk of his force from Holland and Hanover, which proceeded by rapid marches to meet the Austrians on the banks of the Danube. The armies of the latter had passed the Inn into Bavaria early in September, the elector of which had been summoned to join his forces to that of Austria. He withdrew, however, from Munich to Wurtzburg, whilst his troops

retreated into Franconia ; and, for this defection, his country was subjected to severe exactions.

The French armies, estimated at 150,000 men, advanced in six divisions, under the command of marshals Bernadotte, Marmont, Davoust, Soult, Ney, and Lannes ; and having all crossed the Rhine, were joined at the end of the month by Napoleon, who passed the border with his guards at Kehl. On joining the army, he addressed them in a proclamation drawn up in his usual vaunting style, in which he told them—" You are but the van-guard of the great nation ; if it be necessary, it will in a moment rise at my voice, to dissolve this new league which British gold and hatred hath woven ;" and unfortunately these were not vain words.

The Bavarians having formed a junction with two French divisions at Wurtzburg, they advanced towards the Danube on the north, while the other divisions were proceeding in different directions, the main object being to cut off the communication between the Austrian army under general Mack, consisting of 80,000 or 90,000 men, which had advanced to the defiles of the Black Forest, and the territories of Austria. By a series of bold manœuvres and successful actions, this was so completely effected by the middle of October, that Mack was entirely surrounded in Ulm with 30,000 men, who remained to him after the loss of several detached portions of his army, and the retreat of a part to Bohemia under the archduke Ferdinand. Preparations were immediately made

for storming Ulm, but a summons was at the same time sent to Mack to capitulate, with which he thought it necessary to comply. On the 20th of October, the whole of the Austrian troops in that city laid down their arms before the French emperor, and surrendered themselves prisoners of war, with all their artillery and magazines.— Thus was almost annihilated the force with which the Austrians commenced the campaign, nearly 60,000 of them having been taken prisoners, with comparatively a small loss on the part of the French.

Vienna was now the object in the view of Napoleon, and he lost no time in pursuing it. Proceeding to Munich, he advanced at the head of the main body, having before him a corps of Austrians which had been reinforced by the first column of the Russians. The French crossed the Inn in the face of these allies, who, not being strong enough to resist them, retreated step by step on the road to Vienna. In the first week of November Napoleon had his quarters at Lintz, where he received proposals from the allies for an armistice, to which he replied by such conditions as a conqueror alone could dictate ; and in the mean time he continued his operations. The alarm at Vienna was now extreme : the emperor Francis retired with all his court to Brunn in Moravia, while the greater part of the nobility took refuge in Hungary. The inhabitants in general patiently awaited the conqueror, and only appointed a guard to aid the police in keeping the city tran-

quil. On the 11th the main body of the French army arrived, and took up their quarters in the suburbs. They entered Vienna on the 13th, the advanced guard passing through by the bridge over the Danube without halting. On the 15th Napoleon joined the army which was advancing into Moravia to meet the Russians.

While these events were passing in Germany, active operations were pursued in Italy, where marshal Massena was opposed to the archduke Charles. The archduke John occupied the passes of the Tyrol, in order to keep up a communication between the forces in Germany and those in the Venetian territory. On the 18th of October the French forced the passage of the Adige, and took a position near Caldero, where the archduke Charles was strongly posted. Massena having there received the intelligence of the surrender of Mack, and the advance of Napoleon, made a general attack on the archduke's lines, which, after a severe conflict, he entirely broke with great loss. After this disaster, the archduke began his retreat, pursued by the French, who on December 3d obtained possession of Vicenza. Both armies passed the Brenta, and the Tagliamento; and the Austrians continued their retrograde motion, perpetually harassed by the pursuers, till they reached Laybach in Carniola. Massena then halted to learn what was passing in the Tyrol. In that country the archduke John was closely pressed by different French divisions; and at length Ney having forced his way to

Inspruck, and pushed his head-quarters to Bolzano, the archduke, finding himself unable to defend the Tyrol, formed a junction with his brother at Laybach. They then hastened their march towards Vienna, while the French, who had reduced the Tyrol, proceeded to join the main army, Massena holding the archdukes in check.

The main army of the allies now consisted of about 50,000 Russians, with the emperor Alexander at their head, and 25,000 Austrians, chiefly of new levies. The French, when joined by the divisions of Bernadotte and Davoust, amounted to between 70,000 and 80,000 men, in the highest state of discipline, and full of confidence from past successes. Near Austerlitz, on the direct road from Vienna to Olmutz, was fought, on the 2d of December, the memorable battle of that name. It was distinguished also as the battle of the three emperors, from the presence of those of Russia, France, and Austria. Napoleon was his own general-in-chief; the Russians were commanded by general Kutusoff; and the Austrians by prince John of Lichtenstein.

The action, which commenced at the dawn of day and continued till evening, was full of variety and extremely sanguinary. It terminated with the retreat of the allies in good order, but with the loss of many prisoners, and the greatest part of their artillery and baggage. The French advanced on the next day, and an armistice proposed by the emperor Francis took place on the 4th. By its terms the French army was to remain

in possession of all its conquests till the conclusion of a definitive peace, or till the rupture of the negotiations for it: in the latter case, hostilities not to recommence till fourteen days after notice formally given. It was further stipulated, that the Russian army was to evacuate Moravia and Bohemia within fifteen days, and Hungary within a month, and to retire by prescribed routes; also, that there should be no extraordinary levy of troops in the Austrian dominions during this period. To these humiliating conditions the emperor Alexander refused to become a party, and he commenced a retreat in his own manner on the 6th of December. The archduke Charles, likewise, who was advancing on the bank of the Danube from Hungary with a powerful force, was greatly mortified, on his arrival at Vienna, to find that he was reduced to a state of inaction.

While Austria and Russia were thus confronting the power of France, Prussia maintained a cautious neutrality. A violation of her territory by a march of Napoleon through a part of it, without asking permission, did indeed elicit some marks of resentment, which the English ministry endeavoured to kindle into a flame; but the capture of Mack's army caused the affront to be passed over in an accommodation. A scheme for the recovery of Hanover by Swedish troops in British pay, and commanded by their sovereign, in conjunction with English and Russian troops, was also frustrated by the consequences of the battle of Austerlitz.



About this time a convention was signed between France and Prussia, by which Hanover was ceded to the latter, according to Napoleon's own confession, for the express purpose of embroiling that power in a war with England, and thereby shutting the latter out from the continent of Europe. A definitive treaty between France and Austria was concluded on the 26th December, at Presburg, by the terms of which the Venetian territory west of the Adriatic was united to the kingdom of Italy. The Greek provinces east of the Gulf, were ceded to France. The electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg were advanced to the dignity of kings. The Tyrol and Burghausen, with the principality of Eichstadt, were ceded to Bavaria; and the Brisgau and Ortenau to Wirtemberg and Baden. In return, the new electorate of Salzburg was incorporated with the Austrian empire, and Wurtzburg assigned in compensation to the archduke Ferdinand.

A treaty of neutrality had been concluded in September between France and Naples; and the French force under general St Cyr, previously stationed in the Neapolitan territory, joined the army in Lombardy. A combined armament of English and Russians, said to have on board 10,000 British and 14,000 Russian troops, disembarked soon afterwards in that kingdom, not only without opposition, but apparently with every degree of encouragement from the monarch, who was prevented from openly declaring himself only by the speedy termination of the contest.

The emperor Alexander then recalled his forces to Corfu, and the British general, sir James Craig, withdrew into Sicily. The perfidy of the king of Naples so moved the indignation of the emperor Napoleon, that, on the very next day succeeding the signature of the treaty of Presburg, he issued a declaration, that "the Neapolitan dynasty had ceased to reign."—But we must now direct our attention to the naval operations of the year.

The movements of the enemy at this time indicated a determination to realize the haughty menace of Napoleon, that the ocean was no longer to belong to England. Early in the year a squadron of six sail of the line and two frigates, which had been blockaded for more than two years in Rochefort, had found means to elude the British force stationed off that port, and put to sea. Soon after the sailing of that squadron, an armament of far greater magnitude sailed from the harbour of Toulon. This fleet, commanded by admiral Villeneuve, consisted of eleven sail of the line, and a number of frigates and corvettes, on board of which about 10,000 land forces were embarked. On the 15th of March they quitted the harbour, without being perceived by lord Nelson's squadron, who, preferring active warfare to a rigorous blockade, was then cruising at some distance, in the hope of inviting the enemy to an open engagement. After touching at Carthage, where there was six Spanish ships of the line, but not in a state of readiness for sea, the French admiral proceeded to Cadiz. That port

was blockaded by sir John Orde, with a British squadron of only five sail of the line, which being too weak to prevent the junction of the enemy, the Toulon fleet was reinforced by that of the Spanish admiral Gravina on the 9th of April, consisting of six ships of the line and a number of frigates. The combined fleets immediately stood out to sea, and before night a strong easterly wind carried them out of sight of Cadiz.

Lord Nelson, who was then cruising in the Mediterranean, was no sooner informed of the French fleet having sailed, than he commenced his memorable pursuit. From the recommencement of the war, the ruler of France had been supposed to have his eye steadily fixed on the conquest of Egypt, and that country was supposed to be the destination of the Toulon armament. Under this impression the British admiral directed his course towards the coast of Egypt. Having touched at Sicily and Malta, he arrived at the mouth of the Nile, the celebrated scene of his former glory. Here he was surprised at not being able to obtain any intelligence of the enemy's fleet. As his mind was still impressed with the idea of its being on the way towards Egypt, he formed the design of intercepting it in some part of the Mediterranean. In this view he retraced his course towards Sicily, and continued cruising off that island, in the most anxious expectation, till the middle of April, when, to his great mortification and astonishment, he found that he had been totally deceived in his conjectures. The

British admiral now became satisfied that the enemy had proceeded for the West Indies, and therefore resolved to direct his pursuit towards that quarter.

Leaving the Sicilian seas, and having passed the Straits of Gibraltar, he repaired to the Bay of Lagos. Here he received certain information of the course which the enemy had taken. His doubts were now removed, and his hopes reanimated. Inspired with fresh ardour, he weighed from the Bay of Lagos with ten ships of the line and three frigates, and steered with a crowded sail for Barbadoes. In his passage he spoke two vessels bound for England, from which he learned that the combined fleets had, ten days before, passed Barbadoes; and on his arrival at that island, he received information that they were gone to attack Trinidad. On the following day his lordship sailed for that island, where he found himself once more disappointed. No probability of meeting with the object of his pursuit was now left, except in steering to the northward, and successively visiting all the islands.

The British admiral having adopted this measure, first proceeded to Grenada, where he received intelligence that the enemy had only the preceding morning left Martinique, and was steering a northerly course. After so long and so tedious a chase, to find himself within three days' sail of the hostile fleets, was a circumstance which flattered his views and inspired him with fresh hopes, being confident that, in the event of their

making an attack on Antigua, or any other island, he could not fail of coming up with them, and frustrating their designs. But the French admiral, having received intelligence of the arrival of the British fleet in those seas, put into Martinique, and having watered his ships and refreshed his men, on the 7th of June he set sail, and bent his course towards Europe.

Lord Nelson, in the mean time, proceeded to Antigua, where, on his arrival, he found that the combined fleets had a few days before passed that island to the northward. Being now persuaded that they were on their return to Europe, he steered with a full press of sail in that direction, in the hope of overtaking them before they could reach any of their ports. But this expectation, like the rest, proved fallacious. His lordship, however, had too much experience of the uncertainty of naval operations, to calculate fully on the probability of coming up with the enemy. He no sooner found reason to suspect that the combined fleets had shaped their course back to Europe, than he instantly dispatched a fast-sailing vessel to communicate advice to government, in order that proper measures might be taken to intercept them on their return.

In consequence of this information the fleets were met with off Ferrol by sir Robert Calder, who was cruising for that purpose with fifteen sail of the line. The enemy's fleet consisted of not less than twenty sail of the line ; but notwithstanding the superiority of their force, the British

commander did not hesitate a moment in bringing them to action. On the 22d of July the encounter took place, three days after lord Nelson had reached Gibraltar on his return from the West Indies. The unequal contest terminated with the capture of two Spanish ships of the line, the *San Raphael* and the *Firma*, the former of eighty-four, and the latter seventy-four guns. But the enemy being a great way to the windward, and the weather foggy and unfavourable, the admiral found it impossible to renew the action, without separating the fleet from the prizes and from his own crippled ships, as well as risking the masts and yards of several others, which were in so disabled a state as to be incapable of bearing such a press of sail as would have been required in chasing an enemy so far to the windward. Had these obstacles not intervened, the victory would doubtless have been more complete.

From the havoc made on board the captured ships, the loss of the enemy appeared to have been considerable; that of the English was only 11 men killed, and 158 wounded. The admiral's dispatches held out some expectation of a second engagement, and a more decisive victory; but his hopes and those of the public were in this respect disappointed. On the fourth day after the action the enemy's fleet disappeared, and got into Vigo.

This result greatly disappointed the public mind, and the murmurs of disapprobation were so loud and general, that the British admiral returned to England and demanded a court-martial.

The consequence of this investigation was, that he was reprimanded, not for having betrayed either fear or cowardice, but for an error in judgment, in not having made the most of the opportunity afforded him of destroying or capturing every ship of the enemy which it was his duty to engage. The hostile fleets having reached Ferrol in safety, and there augmented their force to twenty-seven sail of the line, next proceeded to Cadiz, and entered that port on the 27th of August, the small squadron under Admiral Collingwood not offering any opposition, which indeed would have been equally rash and ineffectual against so overwhelming a force.

Lord Nelson, after his return from the West Indies, proceeded to London, where on his arrival he was received with those honours which he had so justly merited by his intrepid exertions. He now received an appointment to the command of a fleet of sufficient force to cope with the enemy, in any quarter of the world to which they might be destined. On the 11th of September he hoisted his flag on board the Victory at Portsmouth, and put to sea on the following day, without waiting for five ships of the line which were preparing to sail with him. Having taken command of the fleet under lord Collingwood on the coast of Spain, he resumed his former tactics, and instead of blockading the port of Cadiz, he stationed his main force near Cape St Mary's, establishing a line of frigates to observe and communicate the movements of the enemy. In the

middle of October, on being apprised that a reinforcement of seven sail of the line would speedily join him from England, he detached admiral Louis with six ships of the line on a particular service ; and this bold manœuvre was performed in so open a manner, that it had the desired effect of inducing the enemy to put to sea.

On the 19th of October admiral Villeneuve, with thirty-two sail of the line, seven frigates, and eight corvettes, got under weigh, and sailed with a light breeze to the westward. Intelligence of this movement was conveyed to lord Nelson by the frigates which were appointed to watch their motions. His lordship, concluding their destination to be for the Mediterranean, now bore away with a crowded sail for the entrance of the Straits, where, on his arrival, he was informed by captain Blackwood that the hostile fleet had not yet made its appearance. At length, however, the glorious but fatal day arrived, which was to complete the triumphs and close the career of the hero. On the morning of Monday, October 21st, about day-break, Cape Trafalgar bearing east by south distant about seven leagues, wind nearly west, the combined fleets were discovered six or seven miles to the eastward.

Lord Nelson now beheld within his reach the enemy of whom he had so long been in search. The fleet under his command, which had now received the expected reinforcement, consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line, and bore up in two columns as they formed in the order of sailing,



conformably to instructions issued by the admiral in prospect of an engagement. In these instructions he directed the captains to look to their particular line as their rallying point; but if the signals should not be clearly understood, no captain could do amiss in placing his ship alongside one of the enemy. The admiral himself, who headed the weather column, was to attack the hostile line near the centre, while lord Collingwood, who conducted the leeward column, was to break it, if possible, at a considerable distance from the extreme rear; and thus, it was hoped, the victory would be decided ere the van could be brought to succour the ships engaged. The last telegraphic signal issued by this great commander, at the moment of going into action, was, "ENGLAND EXPECTS EVERY MAN TO DO HIS DUTY."

Admiral Villeneuve supposed that the English fleet consisted of only twenty-one sail, and he originally intended to attack them with an equal number of vessels, while twelve of his select ships, acting as a body of reserve, were to bear down and double upon the British line after the action had commenced. On perceiving, however, the real force with which he had to contend, he arranged his ships in one line, forming a crescent convexing to leeward. The conflict began about noon, when admiral Collingwood, in the Royal Sovereign, gallantly entered into action about the twelfth ship from the enemy's rear, leaving his van unoccupied. The succeeding ships broke through in all parts, astern of their

leader, and engaged their antagonists at the muzzles of their guns.

Lord Nelson, on board the *Victory*, directed his attack on the enemy's line, between the tenth and eleventh ships in the van ; but finding it so close that there was not room to pass, he ordered his ship to be run on board the *Redoubtable*, opposed to him ; his second, the *Temeraire*, engaged the next ship in the enemy's line ; and the others singled out their adversaries in succession, according to the order of battle. For the space of four hours the conflict was tremendous ; particularly in that part of the line where the commander-in-chief had commenced the onset. The guns of his ship repeatedly set fire to the *Redoubtable*, and the British seamen were employed at intervals during the heat of the battle in throwing buckets of water on the spreading flames, which might otherwise have involved both ships in destruction.

Both the French and Spaniards fought with a degree of bravery and skill highly honourable to their officers and men ; but the attack was irresistible. About three in the afternoon, the Spanish admiral, with ten sail of the line, joining the frigates to leeward, bore away for Cadiz. Ten minutes afterwards, five of the headmost ships of the enemy's van, under admiral Dumanoir, tacked, and stood to the windward of the British line ; the sternmost was taken, but the others escaped. The heroic exertions of the British were rewarded by the capture of nineteen ships of the line, with

the commander-in-chief, Villeneuve, and two Spanish admirals. The tempestuous weather which came on after the action, rendered it necessary to destroy most of these prizes, of which only four were carried into Gibraltar. The fugitive ships, under Dumanoir, were captured off Ferrol on the 4th November, by a squadron under the command of sir Richard Strachan.

The loss of the British in the battle of Trafalgar was estimated at 1587 men, killed and wounded; but great as the victory was, and in importance and brilliancy it yields to none in the annals of naval warfare, it was purchased at an immense expense to the country. About the middle of the action, as lord Nelson was walking the quarter-deck, attentive to its progress, and anxiously expecting its issue, he received a shot in the left breast from a musket ball, which wounded him mortally, and he instantly fell. He was immediately carried to the cockpit, where he lived about an hour, and employed the short space of time now allotted him in giving orders, receiving reports, and making inquiries concerning the state of the action. The closing scene of his glorious career was not unworthy of his former exploits. In the hour of death he displayed the same magnanimity that had marked his character and conduct through life. Conscious of his approaching dissolution, he sent for admiral Collingwood, the second in command, to whom he communicated the particulars of his situation, and then gave the

necessary orders to the officers by whom he was surrounded.

On being told that the British flag was triumphant, and that fifteen sail of the line had struck, he appeared much consoled. A few moments before his death, he said to captain Hardy, "I could have wished to live to enjoy this day; but God's will be done." "My lord," replied the captain, "you die in the midst of triumph!" Nelson replied, "God be praised!" and almost instantly expired. Thus fell the hero of the Nile, of Copenhagen, and of Trafalgar, after a victory which utterly blasted the hopes of Napoleon for the subjugation and ruin of England. His contemporaries mourn his loss; posterity will revere his talents and courage; the pages of history will record his fame and immortalize his name, while his example will long be held up to the imitation of future commanders. The mortal remains of the British admiral were conveyed to England, and interred with the highest public honours. Having left no son, the title of Earl Nelson, with a permanent revenue annexed, was, by an act of national and enthusiastic gratitude, conferred upon his brother, a private clergyman, all parties on this occasion vying in their expressions of grief and admiration.

In consequence of the death of lord Nelson, admiral Collingwood succeeded to the command of the fleet, and completed the victory. In clearing the ships of prisoners, however, he found such a number of wounded, that, in order to alleviate

as much as possible this scene of human misery, he transmitted to the marquis de Solana, governor-general of Andalusia, a proposal, offering to commit the wounded to the care of their country ; the officers to be liberated on their parole, and the privates on receipts being given that they should not serve by sea or land till regularly exchanged. This proposal was embraced with avidity, not only by the governor, but by the whole country, which resounded with expressions of applause and gratitude. The Spanish governor, in return for this trait of British generosity, delivered up the English who had been wrecked on board several of the ships, and made an offer of the hospitals to the wounded on board the fleet, pledging the honour of the Spanish nation for their good treatment.

On the news of this important victory, one general sentiment seemed to pervade the whole nation. The munificence of the country was lavished on the family ; and his companions in arms, the partners of his dangers and his triumphs, shared also in the tokens of national gratitude. Admiral Collingwood was raised to the peerage with a pension of L.2000 per annum. The earl of Northesk was honoured with the order of the Bath, and a pension. A liberal subscription was set on foot for the relief of those who suffered in the cause of their country ; and hundreds of thousands of pounds were readily and cheerfully raised for the relief of the officers, seamen, and marines, who were wounded, and

the widows, orphans, and relatives of such as were killed in this memorable action.

In the East Indies, the war was continued between the East India Company and the rajah of Bhurtpore, aided by Holkar. Early in the year, lord Lake made several successive attacks on the town of Bhurtpore, in all of which he was repulsed with considerable loss. At length Holkar's general, Ameer Khan, having been entirely routed by general Smith, and himself so much reduced that he could give no assistance to his ally, whilst lord Lake was preparing for a new attack on Bhurtpore, the rajah offered proposals for peace, which were acceded to on the 10th April, on the condition of his yielding to the Company the fortress of Deeg, and restoring the districts which had been conferred upon him after the peace with Seindiah, together with the payment of a sum of money. In July, lord Cornwallis arrived at Madras to take upon him the office of governor-general, to which he had been appointed as successor to the marquis of Wellesley. His lordship, however, was in such a reduced state of health, that he died on the 5th of October, at Gazepoor, in the province of Benares, in the 67th year of his age. The records of the British empire in Asia will bear ample testimony to his splendid and important services. To the East India Company his memory is peculiarly endeared. British India will always be proud to associate with its happiness, its prosperity, and renown,

the grateful remembrance of its highly venerated benefactor ; and the native powers will long and sincerely regret a man who so deservedly possessed their unbounded confidence and high esteem. As a patriot, a statesman, a warrior, and a man, the character of the marquis Cornwallis shines with distinguished lustre. Peace was signed with Holkar on the 24th December on favourable conditions, by which he was received as a friend of the Company ; and thus a temporary calm was restored to that part of India.

Since the return of Mr Pitt to office, scarcely any thing had occurred, the great victory of Trafalgar excepted, but disaster and disappointment. The total failure of the continental coalition greatly augmented the gloom and disquietude which had begun to prevail in England, in consequence of the alarming illness of Mr Pitt. At the close of the former session of parliament, this distinguished statesman had been compelled, by the decline of a constitution originally delicate, to relinquish all active share in public business, and retire to Bath ; from whence he returned in the commencement of the year, in a state of debility and exhaustion, no doubt augmented by anxiety and disappointment. It has been supposed, that the fatal intelligence of the battle of Austerlitz produced an agitation of spirits which powerfully increased his disorder ; for on returning to his villa at Putney, near London, he breathed his last on the 23d of January 1806, in the 47th year of his age, having directed the

affairs of his country for a longer period than any other minister.

Under his auspices the maritime supremacy of England was confirmed by a series of most splendid victories ; her colonial acquisitions were greatly extended ; but her public burdens were also enormously augmented. He laboured successfully to preserve his country from the contagion of the revolutionary principles that desolated France ; and exerted himself with equal zeal, but with less success, in resisting the military despotism by which that power threatened to subjugate the continent. As a financier, he displayed great ability in the accumulation of public resources ; but it may be fairly questioned, whether he displayed equal political wisdom in the distribution of them. In forming continental alliances, he relied too implicitly on the influence of money for ensuring to Great Britain that ascendancy in foreign courts, to which, by her generous aid, she was entitled. His character has been portrayed in very different colours, and exhibited in very different points of view, by those who condemn and those who approve the principles on which he acted.

Those who considered the revolutionary war as unnecessary, regarded him as one of the principal authors of the tremendous evils which that contest brought upon Europe. While others, reflecting on the extensive spread and dangerous tendency of the principles of the French revolution, and on the extreme hazard to which Great



Britain was exposed, by standing an indifferent spectator till France had subdued the continent, and increased her marine in proportion to her military strength, regard him as the saviour of his country. Every impartial person, indeed, must confess, that Mr Pitt stood in a situation wholly unprecedented, and difficult beyond example—a situation in which he could derive no information from the measures of preceding ministers, or the policy of former times. The grand question which presented itself to his consideration, was of a nature entirely new. History furnished no facts that could serve as a guide to his conduct: in an unexplored path he seems to have taken the surest direction. By the measures adopted, his country was saved; by pursuing a different course, the result might have been otherwise. The consequences of these measures are visible in all their extent: those arising from an opposite system of politics, however brilliant the colours in which imagination may paint them, are wholly theoretic, and not having been verified by experiment, they are merely speculative.

The unprejudiced historian will not deny to Mr Pitt the praise of being a man of firm purpose, of honourable pride, and of disinterested principle. Ambition is universally allowed to have been a prominent trait in his character; but it was the ambition of a great mind. His political views were grand and extensive: but it must be confessed, that his most favourite plans proved unsuccessful; and his most promising scheme, the

last continental coalition, contributed only to the gigantic power and prodigious aggrandizement of France. The failure, however, is not to be ascribed to the plan, but to the mistakes in the execution, which it was not in his power either to prevent or to rectify. Subsequent events have afforded proof, that he had made a just estimate of the effects which the union of all the powers of Europe, acting in perfect concert, might be able to produce. But he was not permitted to witness the justness of his calculations, and the fulfilment of his wishes.

Disinterestedness in regard to pecuniary matters, was one of his distinguishing characteristics. In this respect, to his memory might be justly applied the motto, "*non sibi sed patrie vivit*." After an administration of two-and-twenty years he was so far from having enriched himself, that he left behind him very considerable debts, which he was unable to liquidate.—Whatever errors his opponents might discover, or fancy they discovered, in his political views, he was certainly a great man. On the public theatre of the world he long acted a very conspicuous part. As a statesman, his name will be celebrated in the annals of Europe, and his conduct will long be the theme of both censure and applause. As an orator, he stands almost unrivalled: he was the Tully of Britain, and the glory of her senate. His country showed its respect for his memory by taking on itself the payment of his debts; and an address to the king was presented by

parliament, praying his Majesty to direct that the remains of the minister should be interred at the public expense, and that a monument should be erected to his memory in Westminster Abbey.

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## CHAPTER II.

1806.

THE parliament was opened by commission on the 21st of January 1806. In the speech from the throne, the recent victory of Trafalgar was prominently alluded to, and described as an exploit "beyond all precedent." The king deplored the necessity which the emperor of Germany had felt of withdrawing from the contest, but was consoled in the prospect of the unshaken adherence of the emperor of Russia, and expressed his full confidence in the unexhausted resources of his dominions. In the debate which ensued upon this address, lord Grenville remarked, that the state of the country imperiously called for investigation, but that circumstances painful to his feelings induced him to postpone the discussion. In the commons, lord Henry Petty acknowledged his intention of moving an amendment to the address; but as circumstances, which he deeply lamented, prevented the attendance of the individual most interested to defend the mea-

tures of government, he should make it the subject of a future motion. The addresses were presented on the 23d, the day of Mr Pitt's decease.

After a short interval Mr Lascelles moved, that the late minister be interred at the public expense, and a monument, with a suitable inscription, erected to the memory of that *excellent statesman*. Objections were instantly started to the motion thus worded, and it was opposed by many distinguished members, who avowed their conviction of his integrity and their admiration of his talents. Among these was Mr Windham, who declared, that he could not concur in styling Mr Pitt an excellent statesman, and that the motion did not rest on the basis of historical truth. Mr Fox said, that no one was more ready to acknowledge the private, and even in many respects the public, virtues of Mr Pitt. His great eloquence and splendid talents cast a veil over the system upon which he acted, and concealed its deformity. And however desirous he might be to bury in oblivion former contests, he could not consent to confer public honours on his memory, upon the ground of his being an excellent statesman.

Lord Castlereagh pronounced this to be a question of feeling rather than of argument; and he urged that the house would act inconsistently with its own opinion, repeatedly expressed, if it hesitated to recognize the merits of Mr Pitt. He at the same time confessed, that had he framed the motion, it would have been couched in much stronger terms. On a division of the house, the

numbers were 258 to 89. The sum of L.40,000 was subsequently voted for the payment of his debts. This was approved by Mr Fox, who allowed that Mr Pitt was entitled to form a distinguished part of any administration framed on general principles; and with a view to general advantage; and he delicately adverted to the late effort of Mr Pitt, previous to his acceptance of office, as evincing the absence of all feelings of political animosity on his part.

The death of Mr Pitt caused a total change in the ministry. Lord Eldon resigned the seals, and the honourable Thomas Erskine was appointed lord chancellor, and constituted a peer of the realm by the title of Lord Erskine. Lord Grenville, whom the king had sent for, and empowered to form a new administration, *including Mr Fox*, who had now been estranged from the royal councils more than twenty years, was appointed first lord of the treasury; and lord Henry Petty chancellor of the exchequer. Earl Fitzwilliam president of the council, Viscount Sidmouth lord privy seal. Mr Fox was made secretary of state for foreign affairs; lord Spencer secretary for the home department; and Mr Windham secretary at war. Mr Grey first lord of the admiralty, and Mr Sheridan treasurer of the navy. Earl Moira master-general of the ordnance, and general Fitzpatrick secretary for the colonies. His grace the duke of Bedford was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and Mr Elliott principal secretary. Lord Ellenborough, lord chief-justice of the court

of King's Bench, was also appointed to a seat in the cabinet. Sir Arthur Pigot and Sir Samuel Romilly were nominated attorney and solicitor-generals.

The new ministry were not slow in entering upon the duties of their office. On the 28th of March the chancellor of the exchequer brought forward the budget for the year. The amount of the ways and means was L.43,618,472, and of the supplies L.43,630,000. The war taxes, amounting to L.14,500,000, were to be increased to L.19,500,000, and a new loan of L.18,000,000 was proposed. Mr Windham brought in a bill for inlisting the regular army for a term of years instead of for life, as heretofore. This regulation, which forms an epoch in the military history of England, met with general approbation. The infantry were to be inlisted for seven years, and the cavalry for ten. The plan, however, did not pass without much debate, in the course of which Lord Castlereagh affirmed the state of the country to be prosperous and flourishing, and that the present ministers *reposed on a bed of roses!*

The country, however, had the misfortune to see the number of its enemies increase. The politics of Prussia, which had long been vacillating, now assumed an aspect decidedly hostile to Great Britain. On the 30th of January his Prussian majesty issued a proclamation, in which he signified his intention of taking possession of Hanover, agreeably to a convention entered into with the emperor of France. This was followed by a second

proclamation, dated the 28th of March, ordering the Prussian ports to be shut against the vessels and commerce of Great Britain. In consequence of these hostile proceedings, Mr Fox, on the 21st April, brought down a message from his Majesty, informing the house of commons that he had thought it proper to adopt measures of just retaliation, by issuing orders for the blockade of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, and for the capture of Prussian vessels, of which official notice was given to the ministers of neutral powers. After this commencement of hostilities, a great number of Prussian merchant ships were brought into British ports. But, from the relative circumstances of England and Prussia, the former having no army on the continent, and the latter no ships of war on the seas, the war between the two powers could not be productive of any great or important events. It amounted to nothing more than a suspension of political and commercial intercourse, and circumstances rendered it of short duration.

The British arms, indeed, at this time had little employment. The number of ships and vessels of war in commission was truly enormous! No less than SEVEN HUNDRED and TWENTY—of which 126 were of the line, 14 from fifty to forty-four guns, and 157 frigates. The rest were sloops, gun-brigs, &c. But the marine of France was almost annihilated, and the shattered remains of their fleets were shut up in their harbours, not daring to venture beyond the protection of their

batteries. The British navy was employed in blockading the hostile ports, and nothing of importance took place on the ocean.

This season of inactivity, however, will be regarded by the philanthropist as one of the most glorious periods in the annals of Great Britain. History will record an act of humanity and justice passed by her legislature, which redounds as much to the honour of the national character as her most brilliant victories. The traffic in human flesh, carried on with the coast of Africa, had long been regarded by the enlightened and humane as the opprobrium of Englishmen. Yet, infamous as the slave trade is, it had not, until towards the end of the last century, been considered with that attention which a practice so abhorrent to the benevolent principles of Christianity, and the refinement of modern manners, might have been expected to excite.

The names of illustrious writers in our country, who had taken every opportunity to reprobate the traffic in man, are too many to enumerate. In France they had been seconded by Necker and Raynal, besides a multitude of others who stood in the first ranks of genius; and in almost every country of Europe, persons distinguished for their talents and philanthropy had pleaded the cause of the injured Africans. Yet no person who stood high in rank and power had vigorously exerted his influence to wipe off this stain, by extirpating an evil of so horrible a nature. It had grown by almost imperceptible



degrees to a gigantic size, until it became interwoven with the system of European commerce, sanctioned by prescription and public authority in all maritime nations, and rendered familiar to the minds of men by constant and universal practice. The finest feelings of the human heart were extinguished by a continual repetition of enormities; man was considered as the property of man; natural feeling was outraged, and the God of nature insulted. Europeans had imbibed the false philosophy, that a difference of complexion implied a disparity of intellect, and that the unfortunate Negroes were destined by the great Creator for a state of perpetual slavery.

Mr Granville Sharp was the first individual who in England stood forward as the avowed advocate of the Africans. With this benevolent individual the first movements towards the abolition of negro slavery originated; and history will record his name as the foundation-stone on which was erected this noble monument to the honour of liberty and humanity. From the year 1765 to 1772 he laboured by all possible means to enlighten the public mind on the subject, and draw the public attention to this horrid traffic. In process of time other philanthropists, inspired with the same Christian spirit, came forward to advocate the cause; and a small select society of private individuals was formed for the express purpose of overturning this monstrous colossus of evil, the African slave trade.

Mr Clarkson, a gentleman of spirit and talents, undertook the tedious and irksome task of instituting inquiries, and collecting evidence on the subject, in consequence of whose investigations a scene of enormities was developed sufficient to make humanity shudder. The magnitude of the evil required only to be known to render it generally detested; and from this period the society found numerous coadjutors. Men in all ranks, and of all religious denominations, united to attempt the removal of this national disgrace. Among these the Quakers, both in England and America, who had uniformly expressed their disapprobation of slavery, distinguished themselves among the most strenuous advocates for its abolition; and a petition in favour of the oppressed Africans was presented from that benevolent body to the British parliament. The cause now began to become popular. Numerous pamphlets and tracts on the subject were published, and generally circulated. Sermons were preached and published; petitions were presented to the legislature from the two universities, and from several of the most considerable towns and corporations of the kingdom; and the whole British nation at length came to interest itself in the affair. But the slave trade had been too long established, and was regarded as the basis of colonial cultivation; the subject involved a great variety of interests, which consequently gave rise to numerous obstacles and much opposition.

In these circumstances his Majesty's ministers thought proper to institute, before a committee of the privy-council, an inquiry into the facts and allegations contained in the representations of both parties. The first public notice that was taken of the subject was in the year 1788, when Mr Wilberforce, who since that time has so greatly distinguished himself in this benevolent business, communicated to parliament his intention of bringing forward a measure respecting the slave trade. And from that period to the death of Mr Pitt the subject was never lost sight of, but from time to time brought under the notice of parliament, with various measures of success. It, however, gradually gained ground; and on the 28th of February 1805 the bill for the abolition was lost in the house of commons, by a majority of only seven voices.

The attainment of this great object was reserved for Mr Fox and his colleagues in office, supported by Mr Wilberforce and others. With a steady adherence to the principles which he had constantly avowed, Mr Fox, on the 11th of June 1806, had the honour to carry a resolution in the house of commons for the entire abolition of the slave trade. This motion, so interesting to the cause of humanity, was couched in the following terms: "That this house, conceiving the African slave trade to be contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, will, with all practical expedition, take effectual measures for abo-

lishing the said trade, in such manner and at such period as may be deemed most desirable."

The bill met with only a feeble opposition. It was strenuously supported by Mr. Wilberforce and all the members of administration, and carried by a majority of 115 against only 15 dissenting voices. In the course of the debate the solicitor-general stated, from documents before the house, that since the year 1796, that is, during the last ten years, upwards of 360,000 of the natives of Africa, torn from their country by Europeans, had either been sold into slavery, or had miserably perished in their passage to the West Indies. The crimes perpetrated in this traffic had equalled; if they had not exceeded in horror and enormity, those of the French revolution, and had been constantly repeated during the space of three centuries. An age that could tolerate such barbarities, scarcely deserves to be called enlightened. The British ministry resolved to wipe off this stain from the national character; and their philanthropic determination will ever hold a place in the hearts and memory of all who revere the principles of justice, humanity, and religion. The abolition of African slavery forms a glorious epoch in the reign of George III., and millions yet unborn will commemorate that happy period in which the rights of human nature were restored, in spite of interest, prescription, and prejudice.

The trial of lord Melville, on his impeachment by the commons, was a circumstance of considerable interest in the transactions of this year. It

commenced in Westminster-hall, on the 29th April, before the lords, the members of the house of commons being present in a committee of the whole house. The articles of the charge were ten in number, but in substance were reducible to three. 1. That, as treasurer of the navy, he had applied divers sums of public money to his private use and profit. 2. That he had permitted his paymaster, Trotter, to take large sums of money from the bank of England, issued to it on account of the treasurer of the navy, and place it in his own name with his private banker. 3. That he had permitted Trotter to apply the money so abstracted to purposes of private emolument, and had himself derived profit therefrom.—The trial was conducted with unusual dispatch for a proceeding of that nature, the evidence and arguments on both sides being closed on the 17th May, and sentence pronounced June 12th. The result was, that, by a majority, his lordship was pronounced not guilty upon each of the ten articles; but on four of them the majority for his acquittal was considerably less than double the number of those who gave a contrary judgment. The whole number of peers who voted was 135.

An important commercial law was passed during this session of parliament, namely, for permitting the free interchange of grain of every kind between Great Britain and Ireland without either bounty or duty; the good effects of which to both countries have since been amply experienced. An act also passed, under the title of the

American Intercourse bill, though not without violent opposition, for legalizing the trade for lumber and provisions carried on by neutrals to the West India Islands, which in time of war had generally been found indispensably necessary, though violating the navigation laws. It empowered the king in council, when such necessity should arise during the present war, to authorize his governors, under such restrictions as should seem fit, to permit this traffic, with the proviso, that neutrals should not import any commodities, staves and lumber excepted, which were not the produce of their own countries, and should not export sugar and other products of the islands.

Of the foreign military and political events of the year, those relating to Naples occupy the first place. On the 9th February, a French army under the command of Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by Massena and other generals, marched for Naples, and on the 15th entered the capital, the garrison in the city and the forts having capitulated. The king and queen had retired to Palermo in January, with a part of the Neapolitan army, and accompanied by several of the nobility. The heir of the kingdom, the duke of Calabria, remained in Naples till the approach of the French, when he retired with some troops to Calabria, where general Dumas, a French emigrant, was endeavouring to organize a levy *en masse*. General Regnier marched in pursuit of the fugitives, and after some actions, in which the Neapolitans displayed very little martial spirit, the war in

Calabria was brought to a close, and the whole kingdom of Naples submitted to the French, except Gaeta and another fortress. Most of the principal families in the country, having lost all esteem for their lawful monarch, attached themselves to the French interest; so that Napoleon ventured to issue a decree conferring the crown of Naples upon his brother Joseph, and his heirs-male, with the proviso, that the crowns of that country and of France should never be united in the same individual. Accordingly Joseph caused himself to be proclaimed king on the 30th March, and exacted an oath of fidelity from all the constituted authorities, the nobles testifying the greatest satisfaction at the change.

The queen of Naples and the duke of Calabria, however, for the king himself was a mere cypher, resolved to make some attempts to recover the crown. They, accordingly, by the means of their emissaries, excited an insurrection against the French in Abruzzo and Calabria, which for a time freed these provinces from French influence. While these disturbances were still subsisting, sir Sidney Smith arrived at Palermo about the middle of April, and took the command of the English squadron lying there, consisting of five sail of the line, with some frigates and smaller vessels.

He began his operations by throwing succours into Gaeta and; afterwards, taking possession of the isle of Capri, he proceeded along the coast, exciting a general alarm, and keeping up a connexion with the discontented Calabrians. At length, at

the urgent requests of the court of Palermo, sir John Stuart, who commanded the British troops in Sicily, embarked a body of about 4800 effective men, with which, on the 1st of July, he effected a landing in the Gulf of Euphemia, near the northern frontier of Lower Calabria. General Regnier with his troops being encamped some miles distance at Maida, sir John determined upon attacking him before he should be joined by his expected reinforcements, and accordingly advanced to the place on the 4th.

The junction, however, had been made on the night before, and the enemy, to the number of about 7000, descended from the heights, and marched into the plain to meet the assailants. After firing for some time, both armies rushed on with the bayonet, when the superior firmness of the British soldiers soon decided the contest. As soon as the weapons crossed, the French gave way, and were pursued with a dreadful slaughter. An attempt to retrieve the honour of the day proved ineffectual, and a complete victory was left to the British, whose loss was inconsiderable compared with that of their opponents. The immediate consequence of this brilliant action was a general insurrection of the Calabrian peasantry, and the expulsion of the French from the province.

Efforts of this kind, however, were inadequate to the promoting of any permanent change in the state of the Neapolitan kingdom; and sir John Stuart, sensible that he could not long maintain



his ground in Calabria, prepared for returning to Sicily. Having, by one of his officers, obtained possession of the strong fort of Scylla, opposite to Messina, he recrossed the Straits, leaving the Calabrian insurgents to contend with an exasperated foe, who treated them as rebels; and every kind of cruelty was practised on both sides, in a protracted and desultory warfare. The French, soon after the battle of Maida, reduced the fortress of Gaeta, which had long employed a considerable portion of their force; and general Fox, who took the command of the British troops in Sicily, refusing to concur in the hopeless plans of the court of Palermo for recovering Naples, the new government in that kingdom remained undisturbed, except by some intestine disorders.

By the treaty of Presburg, the town and district of Cattaro, on the coast of Dalmatia, had been transferred from Austria to France. During the delay of the latter in coming to take possession, a Russian man of war from Corfu arrived at the port, while the inhabitants, aided by a band of Montenegrins, were in a state of resistance to the stipulated transfer. On this event the commander of the Austrian garrison evacuated Cattaro on the 4th March, which was immediately occupied by the natives, chiefly Greeks, who delivered it to the Russians. The French on their arrival, by way of compensation for their disappointment, seized Ragusa, to which they had no claim, on pretence of securing it against the Montenegrins. They were afterwards besieged in this place by

the Russians and Montenegrins, but they held out until relieved by general Molitor with an army from Dalmatia. The French then became the assailants, and soon cleared the territory of Ragusa from the allies. The latter being afterwards assembled in force near Castel Nuovo, were defeated by general Marmont with great loss; but the Russians remained in possession of the place to the end of the year.

About this time an important acquisition was made by the British arms in a distant quarter of the globe. After the reduction of the Cape of Good Hope, sir Home Popham and general Beresford, who had been sent out in the autumn of 1805 with a force of about 5000 men, judging it expedient to make an attack on some of the Spanish settlements in South America, they embarked a part of the land forces; and after a passage long and tedious beyond what they had expected, on the 6th of June arrived at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata. In order to make himself acquainted with the navigation of the river, sir Home Popham proceeded in the *Narcissus* to reconnoitre, as far as circumstances would permit, the different situations on its bank, and to collect as much information as possible relative to the strength of the enemy. The progress of the ships up the river was greatly retarded by the shoals, the adverse winds and currents, the foggy weather, and the inaccuracy of the charts. The laborious and unremitted exertions of the officers and men, however, enabled him to surmount these obstacles;

and the squadron, after having occupied nine days in proceeding about eighty miles, came to an anchor off the point of Quilmay, about twelve miles from Buenos Ayres, which the British commanders had resolved to attack in preference to Monte Video.

On the 25th of June, in the course of the afternoon and night, a landing was effected without opposition, though a body of the enemy, consisting of about 2000 men, chiefly cavalry, with eight field-pieces, was posted at the village of Redaction, on a height about two miles distant from the place where the troops disembarked, and directly in their front. The whole intermediate space, as well as to the right and left, was a perfect flat, impassable in winter, but represented by the guide as practicable at that time to the march of artillery. It was eleven o'clock next morning before the troops could move off their ground. The Spanish troops were drawn up along the brow of a hill, on which was situated the village of Redaction, covering their right flank. The nature of the ground was such, that the British forces were obliged to march directly to the enemy's front, and to form a line as equal as possible to his in length. In this order they advanced, with two six-pounders on each flank, and two howitzers in the centre of the first line. Having approached within range of the enemy's guns, a tongue of swampy ground crossing their front obliged them to halt till their artillery took a circuitous route.

Scarcely had they crossed the swamp, when the Spaniards opened a fire from their field-pieces, which at first was well directed; but as the English advanced at a quick pace, in spite of the boggy ground, which obliged them to leave their artillery behind, they received but little injury. A part of the troops having gained the heights in a tolerably good line, the enemy retired from the brow of the hill. The English then gained that position, and commencing a fire of small arms, the Spaniards fled with precipitation, leaving behind them four field-pieces and a tumbril. Having caused the army to halt on the field for the space of two hours, the British general then marched forward, in the hope of preventing the destruction of the bridge over the river Chuelo, which lay between them and Buenos Ayres, from which it was distant about three miles. But on his approach he found it in flames, and was unable to prevent its total destruction.

During the night the Spaniards were heard bringing down artillery; and the British troops were withdrawn from the bank of the river, as their position seemed too much exposed to the enemy's fire, which had opened on them from their guns, and a considerable line of infantry. At day-break next morning, captain Kennet was sent to reconnoitre both sides of the river, which was scarcely thirty yards wide, and found that the English had little or nothing to protect them, whilst the Spaniards were drawn up behind hedges and houses, and in the vessels on the

opposite bank. As circumstances were such as to admit of no delay, general Beresford determined on forcing the passage, and for that purpose ordered down the field-pieces to the brink of the river. The enemy, in the mean time, opened an ill-directed fire of cannon and musketry ; the former of which was soon silenced, though the latter was kept up more than half an hour, but was so ill-directed as to do very little injury to the British troops, who by means of boats and rafts effected the passage of the river, in the face of 2000 provincial troops who lined the opposite bank, and made but a feeble opposition.

About eleven o'clock in the forenoon, the greatest part of the English troops, with some of the guns, had got over the river ; and general Beresford having learned that most of the Spanish troops had abandoned the city, on the 28th of June sent a summons to the governor, who, without attempting further resistance, agreed to a capitulation, of which the principal articles were, security to their religious worship, to the persons of the inhabitants, and to all private property. The amount of the public treasure taken at Buenos Ayres amounted to 1,291,323 dollars ; of which 1,086,203 dollars were embarked on board the *Narcissus*, and the remaining, viz. 205,115 were left in the treasury.

In the elation of the moment, sir Home Popham transmitted a circular letter to the chief commercial towns in Britain, informing them " that a whole continent was laid open to the

British trade." This unparalleled presumption gave rise to the utmost extravagance of speculation. But though so small a force had sufficed to acquire, it was wholly inadequate to retain this unwieldy conquest; and in a short time Buenos Ayres was recovered by the Spaniards, under the conduct of colonel Linieres, a French officer in the South American service; and the English troops, with general Beresford their commander, were made prisoners of war. Sir Home Popham, nevertheless, continued to blockade the entrance of the river; and on the arrival of reinforcements from the Cape, he made an unsuccessful attempt on Monte Video. Such was the situation of affairs on the La Plata at the close of 1806.

The naval operations of the year were few in number, but they were uniformly successful. A French squadron of five sail of the line was encountered, in the month of February, off the coast of St Domingo, by a superior force under admiral Duckworth. After a furious action, three of them struck their flags, and the other two were driven on shore, and burnt. In the east, the French admiral Linois was captured, by sir John Borlase Warren, on board the Marengo of eighty guns, with the Belle Poule of forty guns, on his passage back to France, enriched with various plunder. A large convoy from Rochefort was intercepted by sir Samuel Hood, and four out of five large frigates were taken, with troops on board destined for the West

**Indips.** A remarkably gallant exploit was also achieved by lord Cochrane, who commanded the *Pallas*, in cutting out three Spanish vessels under a heavy fire from the protecting batteries of Avillos.

Whilst these things were transacting, negotiations were carrying on between the courts of France and England, which for a time afforded a prospect of the restoration of peace. They originated in a correspondence between Mr Fox and M. Talleyrand, the occasion of which had been the disclosure to the former of an infamous plot for the assassination of the French emperor, by an emigrant who seemed to expect the concurrence of the English minister in the design, but of which Mr Fox, with his characteristic generosity of spirit, thought himself obliged to give warning to M. Talleyrand. In reply to Mr Fox's communication, an extract was given from a speech of the emperor to the legislative body, on March 2d, in the following terms: "I desire peace with England. On my part I shall never delay it for a moment: I shall always be ready to conclude it, taking for its basis the treaty of Amiens."

As this intimation was clearly understood to be intended as an opening to negotiation, Mr Fox, after a short interval, returned an answer expressive of "the cordial disposition of the English government to treat on the general basis of a peace honourable to both countries, and to their allies;" adding, "that the existing ties between

England and Russia were such, that England could not treat, much less conclude, but in concert with the emperor Alexander." M. Talleyrand replied, "that the emperor Napoleon adopted the general principle laid down by Mr Fox ; but thought there was no necessity for the intervention of a foreign and distant power."

It happened that among the English detained in France at the recommencement of the war was a young nobleman, the earl of Yarmouth, in whose discretion and ability Mr Fox could confide with entire satisfaction. Being invested with the requisite powers to treat with the French government, this nobleman repaired to Paris, in order to open the negociation ; but he found the difficulty respecting Russia unhappily retarded his progress, though a point of form rather than substance ; as the concert, whether acknowledged by France or not, between the courts of London and Petersburg was not the less real.

The most prominent subjects of difference, exclusive of the claims of Russia, were Hanover and Sicily. No exchange or indemnity for the first could be hearkened to ; and in his dispatch of June 13th, lord Yarmouth informed the English minister of the declaration which M. Talleyrand had at length made, "that, considering the extreme stress which was laid on this point, Hanover should make no difficulty." "Authorized," says lord Yarmouth, "by the concession of that in which the honour of the king, and that of the nation, appeared most interested, I



inquired, whether the possession of Sicily would be demanded?" To this M. Talleyrand replied: "You have it: we do not ask it. Had we the possession, difficulties would be much augmented." The French minister also conceded, that a British minister, authorized by the emperor Alexander, should stipulate for both, adding, "the asperity which marked the commencement of the war is no more; and the wish of France was to live in harmony with so great a power as Britain."

In another conversation, M. Talleyrand insinuated, that Russia was inclined to treat separately; and also mentioned, that the emperor of France had received dispatches from his brother and the general officers under his orders, stating, that Naples could not be held without Sicily, and the probability which they saw of gaining possession of that island. To this lord Yarmouth answered, that being required to stipulate for the restoration of Naples to the king of Sicily, as a necessary condition of peace, there could be no question of their separation. M. Talleyrand repeatedly stated the absolute determination of the French emperor not to give up Naples, Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia, nor to alienate any part of his Italian states to form a provision for the king of Sardinia. Lord Yarmouth solemnly protested against any cessions in the West Indies; nor did it at that time appear to his lordship, that the French government cared sufficiently for those objects, to give for them any continental equiva-

lent. The French minister, however, frequently repeated, that Hanover should be restored, and that Malta and the Cape of Good Hope should be ceded to Great Britain; observing, that the French government considered these as objects sufficient to induce England to conclude a peace.

On the 26th of June Mr Fox, though at this time rapidly declining in health, addressed an excellent dispatch to lord Yarmouth, expressing his astonishment at the tergiversation of M. Talleyrand. The recognition of the French emperor, and the other new potentates, he regarded as a full compensation for the restoration of Hanover. He transmitted to lord Yarmouth the full powers upon which the French minister had laid so much stress; but with orders fairly to state to M. Talleyrand, that he had no authority to make use of them until that minister returned to his former ground respecting Sicily. He remarked, that if D'Oubril, the Russian ambassador, had offered to treat separately, it was only in the way that lord Yarmouth himself treated; that is, *in form*, but substantially in concert. Naples and Istria, Mr Fox admitted, were not to be conclusive against agreeing to provisional articles, subject to the approval of Russia; or, as he explained himself, "that those articles should not have effect till a peace should be concluded between France and Russia."

On the 1st of July lord Yarmouth acknowledged his receipt of the full powers with which he was now vested by the British government; and

mentioned his communication of the same to M. Talleyrand, who merely said, "that change of circumstances during a negociation, were always valid reasons for a change of terms: that had any confidential overture been made three months ago, France would have been ready to settle the question of Naples in the manner most satisfactory to Great Britain: the same a month later with regard to Holland." At the close of the conference, lord Yarmouth repeated, "that it was impossible to proceed with the negociation till every mode of seeking to obtain possession of Sicily was entirely relinquished." On subsequently demanding his passports, M. Talleyrand took the opportunity of offering the Hans towns as an establishment for the king of Naples. But on the 5th July, being the very next day after the receipt of lord Yarmouth's letter, Mr Fox peremptorily replied, "that the abandonment of Sicily was a point which it was impossible for his Majesty to concede. The demand of France was inconsistent with the whole principle on which the negociation rests; and the proposal of M. Talleyrand is, of itself, quite inadmissible. To the original basis of the negociation, therefore, lord Yarmouth was directed to advert; and if this was not accepted, to state, in perfectly civil and decided terms, that he was not at liberty to treat on any other ground, and therefore to desire his passports."

The earl of Yarmouth having strictly complied with his instructions, M. Talleyrand now offered

a further proposition from the emperor, tendering Dalmatia, Albania, and Ragusa, as an indemnity for Sicily. This, he was assured, would not be accepted; however, the English negociator consented to wait the return of the messenger; M. Talleyrand adding, "that if peace was made, Germany should remain in its present state." At this critical juncture, the indisposition of Mr Fox had so alarmingly increased as to render him incapable of attending to business; and the succeeding dispatches, transmitted under the sanction of his name, were fairly acknowledged, at a subsequent period, not to have proceeded from his pen, which was indeed but too evident. The elaborate answer of July 18. to lord Yarmouth's last dispatch, most unhappily and unseasonably wavered upon the grand point of Sicily. "An exchange," says the writer of that dispatch, which was generally ascribed to lord Grenville, "is now offered for Sicily; and it is in that view, and not in that of an absolute and uncompensated cession, that the question is now to be considered; and to this the full and free consent of its sovereign is necessary, which is not likely to be obtained by the offer of Dalmatia." The writer then suggests the addition of Istria, and of a large portion of the Venetian states, including, if possible, the city of Venice: and lord Yarmouth was directed to continue the conferences with M. Talleyrand, to ascertain whether any more practicable shape could be given to the exchange.

This departure from a point which Mr Fox had uniformly insisted on, and respecting which he had declared it *impossible* for his Britannic Majesty to concede, naturally induced the supposition that the English cabinet would adhere firmly to nothing ; and from this moment all was fluctuation and indecision. Nor did the slightest probability exist, that France would yield in exchange what would be likely to obtain "the full and free consent of the king of Sicily."

While matters were in this state, a treaty for a separate peace was in agitation between France and Russia. On the 17th July, M. D'Oubril, the Russian plenipotentiary, acknowledged to lord Yarmouth that he had produced his powers ; and that if conditions, such as he judged necessary to ensure the peace of the continent, could be obtained, he should sign a truce of ten months. His lordship now found himself in a still more difficult predicament. He remonstrated with the Russian ambassador on his conduct, and on the impropriety of disguising his intentions ; and at last drew from him an avowal, which his lordship wrote down in his presence, "That being aware of the immediate danger of Austria, if it were in his power to save her, he should think it his duty to do so even by a separate peace."

Lord Yarmouth used every argument to dissuade him from so unadvised and precipitate a measure, but without success. He found him little disposed to listen to his reasons or his remonstrances ; and soon perceived that he was

determined to conclude a peace, good or bad, with or without England. On the 20th July lord Yarmouth was informed that the peace was already signed. He immediately went to M. D'Oubril, but was told he was not at home. Perceiving his carriage, however, his lordship forced his way to his presence. The ambassador admitted the fact, that a treaty of peace between France and Russia was signed. The principal conditions were, the immediate evacuation of Germany by the French troops, the integrity of the Ottoman empire, and the inviolability of Swedish Pomerania. By a secret article, Russia promised to obtain his Sicilian majesty's consent to an exchange of Sicily, for Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica. Russia was also to use her good offices for the restoration of peace between France and Great Britain. Lord Yarmouth had not the patience to listen to M. D'Oubril's apology for this conduct.

At his next interview with M. Talleyrand, the British plenipotentiary perceived that France had risen in her demands, though not so much as "the sudden defection of Russia had led him to apprehend." The French government still seemed willing to accede to the articles relating to Malta, the Cape of Good Hope, and Hanover. M. Talleyrand demanded his powers, which being produced, general Clarke, who had just concluded the treaty with Russia, was appointed to treat with England. At their first conference, general Clarke observed, that the separate peace with

Russia was to be considered as equal, or even superior, to any great success in war, and consequently as entitling France to terms much more advantageous than those to which she would have subscribed some days ago. In a second conference, general Clarke, in speaking of his Britannic majesty's German dominions, stated, that it was the intention of France to extend the sovereignty of Prussia over Fulda, Hoya, and some other small principalities. He proposed that Malta, Gozo, and Conio, should be ceded in full sovereignty to Great Britain, with a clause inserted in the article, declaratory of the dissolution of the order, and the assignment of some pensions for the knights and others "having real rights in the island." That the Cape of Good Hope should also be ceded in equally full sovereignty; but, as a condition, it was desired that it should be declared a free port, or that a part of it should be appropriated to that purpose. To these proposals were added the integrity of the Ottoman empire, and of the dominions of Portugal and Sweden.

The demands of France were Pondicherry, St Lucie, Goree, Tobago, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, with the recognition of all the branches of the imperial family, and of the new sovereigns created by the French emperor. In a conversation which lord Yarmouth had with M. Talleyrand, the latter said, "Switzerland is on the eve of undergoing a great change. This cannot be averted but by a peace with England ;

but still less can we alter, for any other considerations, our intention of invading Portugal. The army destined for that purpose is already assembling at Bayonne. This is for the determination of Great Britain." To this representation he added, "Shall we execute our other schemes as we did those of Holland and Naples?"

The step taken by lord Yarmouth in producing his full powers, though absolutely essential if peace were really the object in view, gave unexpected offence to the English ministers, who considered it as "calculated to create an impression very unfavourable to the farther progress of the negociation." The reply of his lordship, dated August 1st, contained a spirited vindication of his own conduct, and a masterly view of the existing state of Europe at that crisis. It was, however, now thought proper to appoint the earl of Lauderdale joint negociator with the earl of Yarmouth. The successive conferences of the two lords with general Clarke and M. Champagny, the French plenipotentiaries, seemed little calculated to expedite the business. In the meantime, the English cabinet awaited with much anxiety the ultimate resolves of the court of St Petersburg; and by the recall of lord Yarmouth the negociation rested wholly with lord Lauderdale.

The earl retraced, in a note to general Clarke, the origin, progress, and circumstances of the negociation. He reminded the French government, that the *uti possidetis* was its original basis;



and represented the surprise and regret which his Britannic majesty had felt, when, almost at the very moment of his acceptance of the proposal, he learned that this principle was abandoned by the demand of the cession of Sicily, a demand which had hitherto been modified only by such projects of indemnity to his Sicilian majesty as appeared to be wholly inadequate and inadmissible. His lordship observed, that although this demand was so incompatible with the original principle on which the two powers had begun to treat, as to be in itself sufficient to put an end to the negotiations, the anxious desire of his Britannic majesty to concur with his ally the emperor of Russia, and to secure to his subjects the blessings of peace, had induced him to receive any new proposal for granting his Sicilian majesty, in exchange for Sicily, a real and satisfactory equivalent ; adding, that as no such proposal had yet been made, he found himself obliged to declare, that he could not consent to treat on any other basis than that of the *uti possidetis*, as originally proposed by France.

His lordship went on to declare, that the adoption of this principle would not prevent his sovereign from listening to any offer of a just and adequate indemnification to his Sicilian majesty for the cession of Sicily, or to any proposal for an exchange of territory between the two contracting parties, upon just and equal principles, such as might tend to the reciprocal advantage of the two countries. His lordship also suggested,

that although, in consequence of the treaty signed between France and Russia, the relative situation of France and Great Britain was no longer the same, yet, on the other hand, France had acquired fresh advantages, in consequence of the changes she had made in the constitution of the German empire ; an arrangement, the preventing of which had been represented by France to the court of Great Britain as a powerful motive for the immediate conclusion of a peace on the basis of *uti possidetis*. On this ground, therefore, lord Lauderdale represented to general Clarke, that if the principle formerly appeared just to France, it could not fail, at that moment, even according to their own views of the subject, to be more favourable to her interests than to those of Great Britain.

The note of lord Lauderdale was answered by another from general Clarke, in which, after some declamation on the anxious desire which his imperial and royal majesty, the emperor of the French and king of Italy, had manifested for the speedy conclusion of a peace, he imputed to the British ministers all the delays and difficulties which attended the business. After this prelude, he declared in positive terms, that the emperor of the French rejected *in toto* the original basis on which the negotiation was founded. "It could never," says this note, "have entered into the mind of his majesty the emperor of the French and the king of Italy, to take the *uti possidetis* as the basis of the negotiation. If such had been his inten-

tion, he would have kept Moravia, a part of Hungary, Styria, Carniola, Croatia, the whole of Austria, as well as its capital : Trieste and Fiume, and the surrounding coast, would be still in his possession, as well as Genoa and Venice. Hanover, Osnaburg, and all the mouths of the great rivers in the north of Germany, would be subject to his dominion ; and doubtless his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy might then, without difficulty, have left his Britannic majesty in possession of the Cape, Surinam, Tobago, St Lucie, Pondicherry, &c. As to Sicily, in this very supposition his majesty the emperor and king would not have left it to his enemies ; but his majesty would only have thought that the conquest of that island should have preceded the opening of the negociations : And while Prussia and Russia have either guaranteed or recognized the changes that have taken place in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, is it to be supposed that England could have prevented the conquest of Sicily, which is separated from the continent only by a channel of two thousand toises ?”

General Clarke, in the next place, adverted to the political situation of the Batavian republic ; and endeavoured to demonstrate, that without the restoration of its colonies, and the consequent re-establishment of its commerce, it could never exist as an independent state, but necessarily become a province of the French empire. For some time the official papers exhibited little else than a series of mutual recriminations, each party

accusing the other of raising new obstacles, and throwing impediments in the way of the negotiations; the British ambassador standing on the *uti possidetis*, while those of France unequivocally rejected that original principle. While things were in this state, intelligence arrived that the emperor of Russia had refused to ratify the treaty which M. D'Oubril had so precipitately concluded; an event which could not fail of influencing materially the state of the negotiation. M. Talleyrand, indeed, had confessed to lord Lauderdale, that such a change of circumstances would certainly induce the emperor of the French to make peace with England on terms to which he would not otherwise have consented.

This event, however, made little difference in the demands of Great Britain, and indeed none in what related to her own interests. But the refusal of the emperor Alexander to ratify the treaty concluded by his ambassador, placed England and Russia in the same relative situation as before that event. The British government, therefore, refused to treat, except in conjunction with Russia; and as no satisfactory indemnification had hitherto been offered to his Sicilian majesty, the courts of London and Petersburg resolved to adhere to the original basis, and to preserve Sicily to its monarch: The emperor of France, on the other hand, had directed his views chiefly to the acquisition of that island, and to the conclusion of a separate treaty with Great Britain.

It would be alike useless and tedious to detail minutely the discussion of these subjects by M. Talleyrand and the English plenipotentiary, or to transcribe their official notes. Suffice it to say, that after much unavailing discussion, which tended little to bring the negociation to a conclusion, M. Champagny proposed at last to the earl of Lauderdale the terms on which the emperor his master would consent to make peace:—*1st*, That Hanover, with its dependencies, should be restored to his Britannic Majesty; *2dly*, That the possession of Malta should be confirmed to Great Britain; *3dly*, That France would interfere with Holland to confirm to England the absolute possession of the Cape of Good Hope; *4thly*, That the emperor of the French would confirm to his Britannic Majesty the possession of Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahee, and the other dependent *Comptoirs*; *5thly*, That Tobago should be ceded to Great Britain.

In return for these sacrifices he expected the cession of Sicily; and proposed that his Sicilian majesty should receive as an indemnity the islands of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, &c. with an annuity from the court of Madrid to enable him to support his dignity. To this lord Lauderdale replied, that the article relating to the cession of Sicily was wholly inadmissible, and expressed his surprise that, after so many explanations on the subject, it should be again mentioned. At the time of this conversation, M. Champagny had no instructions that empowered him to treat concerning

the affairs of Russia. This was said to have been an accidental omission : and at another interview with lord Lauderdale, he informed him that he had received the necessary powers for that purpose ; but he proposed, in the first place, to discuss the terms of peace between France and England.

His lordship, in answer to this, observed, that as the greatest difficulties seemed to arise from the conditions to be granted to Russia, and as Great Britain was resolved not to make peace without obtaining for that ally the terms on which she insisted, the more natural order would be to resume the conversation on that subject. A long discussion then ensued, which terminated in M. de Champagny informing his lordship, that the French government was willing, in addition to the treaty signed by D'Oubril, to cede to Russia the island of Corfu, but that he had no authority to go any farther. In consequence of this declaration, the negociations were now at an end. The British plenipotentiary, seeing that no hope was left of bringing the negociation to a favourable issue, immediately applied to M. Talleyrand for his passports to return to England.

The negotiation being thus broken off, the French minister and British plenipotentiary exchanged two declarations, in which the former declaimed, as usual, on the sincere and ardent wishes of his government for peace, and endeavoured to fix on Great Britain the imputation of having prevented the return of that blessing : the

latter retorted the charge, accusing the French government of having departed from its own proposals to Great Britain, and rejected just and reasonable conditions, proposed as the basis of a treaty of peace with Russia. The last official note of M. Talleyrand to the earl of Lauderdale says, that "the emperor of the French, calling to mind the dispositions which he has ever expressed throughout the negociation, cannot but see with regret that England, who might have strengthened and confirmed her vast power by the blessings of peace, the want of which is felt by the present generation, and by the English people as well as all others, willingly suffers the most favourable opportunity of concluding it to pass by. The event will disclose, whether a new coalition will be more disadvantageous to France than those which have preceded it. The event will also disclose, whether those who complain of the grandeur and ambition of France, should not impute to their own enmity this very grandeur and ambition of which they accuse her. The power of France has only been increased by the reiterated efforts to oppress her."

At this critical moment, on which peace or war seemed to be suspended, Mr Fox, who had been for some time afflicted with a dropsy, expired on the 13th of September 1806, in the fifty-ninth year of his age; and thus, in the midst of tumultuous wars and of uncertain negotiations, Great Britain was called to mourn the loss of a patriot and a statesman who has had few equals, and perhaps in no

age or country any superior. For his own glory he had lived sufficiently long ; but his existence was too short for the good of his country. The public, and even the personal character of Mr Fox, must be estimated by his speeches in parliament, and by his unwearied efforts to promote the interests of his country. All historical delineation is comparatively feeble. The errors of his early youth he shook off " as dew-drops from the lion's mane." While yet in the morning of life, his genius, bursting through the surrounding clouds, shone with unrivalled radiance, amidst a long succession of political conflicts in times the most momentous. The extent of his sagacity, in his vast survey of human affairs, could only be equalled by what has been happily styled " the grandeur of his benevolence." His mind was too lofty to adopt sinister means of effecting even the most important purposes. Too great for pride, too wise for artifice, he was not only free from dissimulation, but from the remotest suspicion of it. His eloquence was as various as the occasions which called it forth ; always clear and forcible, at times dignified, pathetic, and sublime. His attacks were invariably made on the strongholds of his adversaries, and his wit, which was occasionally brilliant, constantly touched on his subject, and never degenerated into personality. Peculiarly gifted to unravel the most complicated web of sophistry, he abstained, as a sacred duty, from ascribing to others sentiments which they themselves disclaimed. Without rhetorical



flourishes and gaudy ornaments, his language was the vehicle of thought and feeling. Perfectly master of every kind and mode of reasoning, he modelled his arguments according to those of his principal opponents. Among his rhetorical excellencies may be reckoned his extraordinary powers of arrangement and amplification, the unstudied result of distinct and comprehensive views formed in a mind luminous and energetic, and rapid in all its combinations. His style was such as a powerful understanding and extensive information are calculated to produce: it was not defective either in elegance or harmony, but clear, precise, forcible, and appropriate to the subject he was handling.

As a classical scholar he had few equals. He retained through life his acquaintance with the Greek language. He could converse with a Longinus, on Homer's beauty, sublimity, and pathos; with an Aristotle, on his exhibitions of man; and with a pedagogue, on his dactyls and spondees. Such was the rapidity with which the genius of Fox darted into every subject, that he could meet men of the greatest talents on equal terms in their peculiar studies.

His disinterested patriotism and universal philanthropy, render his memory dear to his country and to mankind. While the subverters of thrones and the spoilers of kingdoms are crowned with triumphant laurels, and congratulated with applauding pœans, it is to the honour of Mr Fox, that he never gave a vote in the British

senate by which one drop of human blood had been spilt, or the treasures of the nation lavished away. He,

“ ‘Midst jarring conflicts, stemm’d the tide of blood,  
And to the menaced world a sea-mark stood ;  
Whose wisdom bade the broils of nations cease,  
And taught the world humanity and peace.”

The closing scene of his life was employed in the benevolent work of restoring peace to his distracted country, but he lived not to effect the wishes of his heart : posterity, however, will not fail to applaud his efforts and intentions.

In private life, no man was ever more adapted to captivate the minds of those with whom he had frequent intercourse. His genius was at once so profound and so lively, his knowledge so extensive, his disposition so amiable, his deportment so unassuming, his manners so affable and engaging, that he gained the hearts of all who enjoyed his conversation, and was the delight of every company into which he entered. Though destitute of the gifts of fortune, he was supported by the services, as well as honoured with the esteem, of several of the most wealthy of the aristocracy, while he was beloved by the nation in general, and adored by the people of Westminster, whom he represented. The tory bigot, Dr Johnson, though unfriendly to his principles, was proud to call him his friend, and admired his genius and talents. “ There is an extraordinary man,” said he, “ who can leave the empire in doubt whether it shall be

ruled by the tongue of Fox, or by the sceptre of George III." Burke and Pitt condemned his politics, but to his talents and virtues they paid the just tribute of applause ; and, if report may be credited, the latter with his dying breath recommended him to his sovereign as his successor. The earl of Carlisle hailed the dawning genius of his youth, which he celebrated in a poem of great excellency : all his contemporaries admired the wonders of his maturer years ; and many of the nobility regarded him as the brightest ornament of his age.

Such was the public and private character of the man who, through life, never deviated from the principles of benevolence and patriotism. The close of his career was not less brilliant than its meridian splendour. The three last acts of his life were worthy of the lover of his country, and the friend of mankind. By one, he endeavoured to put a period to the ravages of war ; and had his valuable life been spared, it can scarcely be doubted that he would have accomplished the desirable object. By another, he laboured to tranquillize an important branch of the empire, that was distracted by religious feuds and dissensions ; to remove all legal disabilities on the score of religion ; to establish on the broadest basis liberty of conscience ; and to unite the interests of Ireland with those of England, by an extension of common rights, and a participation of common benefits. By the third, he obtained from both houses of parliament a resolution for the aboli-

tion of the slave trade ; and thus closed his life with an act which tends to rescue humanity from reproach, and cause millions yet unborn to revere his memory. When prejudice shall be extinct, and party cavils forgotten, the name of Fox will be classed among the benefactors of mankind, and “ History, making an allowance for the indiscretions of his youth, will enshrine his fame in one unclouded blaze of glory.”

Poesy has immortalized the names of Pitt and Fox, and erected to the memory of these two celebrated statesmen and eminent orators, a monument more durable than marble or bronze :—

With more than mortal powers endow'd,  
How high they soar'd above the crowd !  
Theirs was no common party race,  
Jostling by dark intrigue for place ;  
Like fabled gods, their mighty war  
Shook realms and nations in its jar :  
Beneath each banner proud to stand,  
Look'd up the noblest of the land,  
Till through the British world were known  
The names of Pitt and Fox alone.  
Spells of such force, no wizard grave  
E'er framed in dark Thessalian cave ;  
Though his could drain the ocean dry,  
And force the planets from the sky.  
Those spells are spent, and, spent with these,  
The wine of life is on the lees.  
Genius, and taste, and talent gone,  
For ever tomb'd beneath the stone,  
Where—taming thought to human pride !—  
The mighty chiefs sleep side by side.  
Drop upon Fox's grave the tear,  
'Twill trickle to his rival's bier ;

O'er Pitt's the mournful requiem sound,  
And Fox's shall the notes rebound.  
The solemn echo seems to cry,  
" Here let their discord with them die.  
Seek not for those a separate doom  
Whom Fate made brothers in the tomb ;  
But search the land of living men,  
Where wilt thou find their like again ?"

On the death of this lamented statesman some new arrangements became necessary among the members of administration. Lord Howick succeeded Mr Fox in the office of secretary of state for foreign affairs, and Mr Thomas Grenville succeeded him as first lord of the admiralty. Mr Tierney became president of the board of control, to which the former gentleman had been appointed, on the nomination of lord Minto to the government of India. Lord Sidmouth was president of the council in the room of earl Fitzwilliam, who retired in ill health ; and the vacant office of privy-seal was assigned to lord Holland. These changes were rather unexpectedly followed by a dissolution of parliament ; but this appeal to the people procured for ministers no great accession of strength in the house of commons.

## CHAPTER III.

1806—1807.

THE state of public affairs throughout Europe at this eventful crisis, was without a parallel in history. The subversion and creation of kingdoms were become simple operations, with which the world was beginning to be familiarized. The territory of the Batavian republic being full of French troops, who garrisoned all the fortified towns, an edict of their emperor was all that was necessary to create a king, and furnish him with a kingdom. On the 9th of June this A.D. 1806. change in the constitution was notified to their high mightinesses the states-general by M. Verneul, who, being just arrived from Paris, opened the special commission which he had received from prince Louis Buonaparte as king of Holland.

This communication was first made to the grand pensionary, and to the assembly and council of state. A constitution for the new monarchy was then immediately framed: its principal features were,—The executive power, with the nomination of all offices civil and military, was vested solely in the king; the legislative body to be composed of thirty-three members, delegated from the different provinces, and elected for five years, in the following manner;—that is, two

candidates for each of the vacant places were to be presented, and the king was to make his choice of the member. The constitution granted equal protection to all the religions professed in the state ; and by the authority of the king and the legislature, every thing necessary to ecclesiastical organization, and every kind of worship, was to be determined.

No sooner was this new order of things announced, than the new king and queen of Holland, on the 24th of June, made their public entrance into the Hague. Their majesties were received at the palace of their high mightinesses by the constituted authorities ; and having entered the hall of the assembly, the king seated himself on the throne. All the officers of state were ranged around him in their proper situations. The king then directed the grand-master of the ceremonies to administer the oaths of allegiance to their high mightinesses ; and each member approaching the foot of the throne, was sworn on the holy evangelists.

This ceremony performed, the king addressed their high mightinesses in an appropriate oration. He declared, that he accepted the throne under a conviction that the measure was agreeable to the wishes of the whole nation ; and testified his reliance on the intelligence, zeal, and patriotism of the public functionaries, and the strong desire which he had to promote the welfare of the people whom he had undertaken to govern, with his hope of finally attaining this end. His majesty

represented the sacrifices which he had made of sentiments, which till then had ever been the object and happiness of his life; and laid great stress on his change of country, on his ceasing to be a Frenchman, and separating himself from his nearest and dearest connexions for their sake. He declared himself fully sensible of the loss of that repose and independence which those whom Heaven calls to govern cannot enjoy; but expressed his high satisfaction at the demonstrations of joy which he had observed among the people in passing through the country, and which had convinced him of their confidence in him, and their attachment to his person.

After this exordium, he declared that this was the first day of the independence of the United Provinces, and, in proof of this assertion, he entered into a recapitulation of the principal events in their history. He took a review of their state in past ages, in connexion with the Romans, the Franks, and the empire of the west; of their subjugation to Spain in later times, of their revolt from that kingdom, and of the subsequent government of the princes of the house of Orange. From this sketch of their history he laboured to prove, that the Batavians had never had a stable government, a fixed destiny, or a real independence. His majesty, in the next place, represented to their high mightinesses, that, after so many vicissitudes, so much agitation, so many calamities, and at a time when the great states of Europe were enlarging themselves, ameliorating



their governments, and concentrating their forces, the country could enjoy no real safety nor independence but in a monarchical state, and in alliance with France. The new king concluded his oration by repeating his reliance on the honour and virtue of his subjects, assuring them of his affections, professing his zeal for their prosperity, and reminding them, that from their loyalty and unanimity alone, he could expect the tranquillity, safety, and glory of the kingdom, and the happiness of his life.

Thus terminated the famous republic of the United Provinces, two hundred and twenty-seven years after its formation. The Dutch of the sixteenth century hazarded their lives and fortunes to establish their national independence and republican form of government. Their descendants of the nineteenth resigned, without a struggle, those privileges for which their ancestors had fought for the space of forty years, and for which so many of them had perished in long and sanguinary wars. But the martial spirit of the Dutch had been long extinguished ; and the revolutionary principles introduced among them having facilitated the conquest of their country, and rendered it dependent upon France, it was no longer possible to shake off the yoke. All resistance was now too late, and they found themselves under the necessity of resigning the form, as they had already resigned the substance, of their constitution.

The revolutions of Germany were equally remarkable, and of still greater importance, in regard to the political system and balance of power in Europe. The fatal battle of Austerlitz had eclipsed the splendour of Austria, and virtually subverted the substance of the Germanic constitution; its form, therefore, was not likely long to remain. The emperor of France having determined that there should not exist on the continent any power capable of opposing his designs, artfully contrived to dismember the German empire, to dissolve the Germanic union, and induce Francis II. to resign his office and dignity, which, from the days of Charlemagne, had been preserved inviolate amidst the revolutions of kingdoms and states, and the general convulsions of Europe.

In pursuance of these views, a new sort of union was formed among several of the Germanic princes, under the name of the Confederation of the Rhine. The kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the arch-chancellor the elector of Baden, the duke of Berg; the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, the princes of Nassau Weilbourg and Nassau Usingen, of Hohenzollern, Hochingen, Siegmaringen, Salm-Salm, Salm Kyrburg, Isenburg, Birstein, and Lichtenstein, the duke of Aremberg, and the count of Leyen, published at Ratisbon a declaration, purporting, that as the Germanic constitution then existing could afford no guarantee to the public tranquillity, the contracting parties had agreed that their states should be for ever separated from the Germanic body, and

united by a particular confederation, under the title of "The Confederate States," of which the emperor of the French was constituted the protector and head.

This treaty of confederation was projected and drawn up at Paris, and ratified at Munich on the 25th of July. It consisted of forty articles relative to the territories which each of the contracting parties were to possess, with other important particulars. Every continental war, in which either France or any of the confederates should be engaged, was to be common to all. The contingent to be furnished by each of the members was determined in the following proportion:—

France,	200,000 men.
Bavaria,	30,000
Wirtemberg,	12,000
Baden,	8,000
Berg,	5,000
Darmstadt,	4,000
Nassau, and the other States,	4,000

The king of Bavaria bound himself to fortify Augsburg and Lindau, to form and maintain in the first of these places artillery establishments, and in the latter a depot of small arms and ammunition sufficient for a reserve. He also engaged to institute at Augsburg a baking establishment, sufficient for the immediate supply of the armies in the event of a war. It was one of the stipulations in this treaty, that if any foreign or neighbouring power should excite alarm by its warlike preparations, in order to prevent surprise

the contracting parties should, on the requisition of the minister of any one of them at the general assembly, begin to arm. The contingent of the allies was subdivided into four parts; and the assembly was to decide how many of these should be called into action. But the arming was to take place only on the summons of the emperor of the French, the protector and head of the confederation. The city of Frankfort was fixed on for the meeting of the general assembly of the confederate states; and the union was to admit of the accession of other German princes and states, whenever it should be consistent with the general interest.

By this confederation the Germanic body was completely dissolved, and a very considerable part of its members ranged themselves under the banners of France. In consequence of this defection, the emperor Francis II. resigned his high office of emperor of Germany. On the 7th of August a proclamation for that purpose was issued at Vienna, in which his imperial majesty the emperor of Austria declared, that, convinced as he was of the impossibility of being enabled any longer to fulfil the duties of his imperial functions as emperor of Germany, he owed it to his principles to renounce a dignity which was valuable in his eyes only whilst he was able to enjoy the confidence of the electors, princes, and other states of the empire; and that, considering the confederation of the Rhine as having dissolved the ties that united him to the Germanic body, abolished

the Germanic constitution, and annulled the office of emperor, he therefore resigned the imperial crown and government, and absolved the electors, princes, and states, the members of the supreme tribunal, the magistrates, and all others belonging to the empire, from their allegiance to him as chief. Thus was dissolved the German, or as it was styled in diplomatic language, the Holy Roman Empire, one thousand years after Charlemagne had received the imperial title from the hands of the pope at Rome.

During the late events Prussia had been flattered with the idea of holding the balance of power between the great belligerent states ; and the offended pride of the Prussian monarch, consequent on the violation of the territory of Anspach, had so far changed his policy, that he was deterred only by the quick succession of disasters from joining the coalition. This was an offence which the French emperor could not easily forgive ; and though Prussia had been encouraged to form a confederation in the north of Germany, similar to that of the Rhine, it was found to be a mere delusion ; the Hanse towns, and other northern estates of the empire, being included in the continually increasing circle of French *protection*. Moreover, by the late treaty of D'Oubril, France had guaranteed the possessions of Sweden in Germany ; whereas the Prussian monarch had been led to expect the annexation of Swedish Pomerania and Weimar to his dominions. But Hanover had been the principal lure by which

Frederick William III. had been tempted to desert the cause of sovereigns, and to lend himself to the projects of Gallic ambition ; and though the restoration of that electorate to its lawful sovereign had been promised under the strictest seal of secrecy, the court of Berlin soon obtained authentic information of the projected infraction of the subsisting engagements of France with Prussia.

The resentment of the Prussian monarch, and of all those who adopted the passions of the day, was now extreme. The tide of opinion ran strongly in favour of war, and nothing was talked of at Berlin but the great Frederick and the victory of Rosbach. The alienation of Prussia did not escape the vigilance of the courts either of London or Paris. From the former lord Morpeth was dispatched with great powers to Berlin, and the naval blockade was immediately raised. On the other hand, M. Talleyrand, on the 11th of September, addressed a note to the Prussian ambassador, Knoblesdorf, complaining of the war-like preparations of Prussia, which was evasively answered. On the 1st of October, however, the Prussian ambassador presented in due form the demands of his sovereign :—1st, That the French armies without delay repass the Rhine ; 2d, The establishment of the northern Germanic confederation ; 3d, The separation of certain places from the confederation of the Rhine. To these requisitions the emperor of France did not deign to reply, but advanced at the head of his troops

with rapid steps, and approached the frontier of Upper Saxony before Prussia could possibly receive any aid from her ally the emperor of Russia.

On the 9th of October appeared the declaration of Frederick William—a singular document, filled with the most humiliating confessions of the lengths to which Prussia had gone in subservience to France, and with expressions of resentment on being made its dupe and its victim. It nevertheless allows, that “the possession of Hanover, could it have been obtained under less unhappy circumstances, would have been of invaluable advantage to Prussia. The king therefore conceived, that he reconciled his wishes with his principles when he accepted of the proposed exchange *only* under the condition of delaying the fulfilment of the same till a general peace, with the consent of his Britannic Majesty.”

At this moment of rashness and passion Prussia seemed almost to exult in the idea of entering alone into a contest with France. Early in October the duke of Brunswick, to whom was committed the chief command of the army, fixed his head-quarters at Weimar, the army extending along the banks of the Saale. The Saxons served as auxiliaries under prince Hohenloe on the left, and the whole collected force exceeded 100,000 men. The French advanced from Bamberg in three divisions; and after various partial encounters, in one of which prince Louis, brother to the king of Prussia, lost his life, the two armies, nearly

of equal strength, but very unequally commanded, seemed to assume an attitude of mutual defiance. The French emperor having by superior manœuvres succeeded in turning the left of the Prussians, and in cutting off the communication with their magazines, occupied in force the heights of Jena, which had been thought impracticable for artillery; and on the eve of the 13th of October the two armies encamped within cannon-shot of each other.

The action commenced two hours after day-break, and quickly became general, exhibiting for some time reciprocal skill and bravery; but a fierce assault from the French cavalry and cuirassiers, under general Murat, at once decided the fortune of this memorable day. All attempts to restore order were in vain: Universal consternation ensued. Nothing resembling even a regular retreat could be effected; and in the flight of the Prussians towards Weimar and Naumburg, multitudes were slaughtered, and a still greater number made prisoners. The duke of Brunswick himself was mortally wounded, and the entire loss did not fall short of 40,000 men; while that of the French, if their own account may be credited, was below 5,000. Further resistance seemed not to be thought of. Erfurt, Magdeburg, Stettin, Leipsic, and Spandau, surrendered almost on the first summons; and on the 25th of October the marshals Davoust and Augereau entered Berlin.



The veteran marshal Mullendorf, last of the generals formed under the great Frederick, was second in command at Jena, and, according to report, had strongly remonstrated against the dispositions made by the duke of Brunswick, particularly in separating the left wing, which extended to Auerstadt, to so great and dangerous a distance from the right and centre.

According to the accounts given in the French bulletins, the loss of the Prussians was above 20,000 killed and wounded, and from 30,000 to 40,000 prisoners, with 300 pieces of cannon, sixty standards, and immense magazines of warlike stores and provisions. Above twenty of the Prussian generals were taken prisoners: on the side of the French, only one general of brigade was killed and one wounded. Such are the accounts given in the French bulletins of this decisive and sanguinary action; and those which rest on Prussian authority, though somewhat different in regard to particulars, have, in respect to the principal features, a greater coincidence than might be expected. The disastrous results, indeed, were too conspicuous to admit of either concealment or palliation. The account which is ascribed to Prussian authority represents the strength of the French army at 180,000 men, and their own at only half that number. The French bulletins, on the contrary, represent the Prussian army engaged in the battle of Jena as consisting of 126,000; and from every previous estimation of the whole military force of Prussia, and every

account of its disposal, there is reason to believe the statement approximates pretty nearly to truth.

But whatever suspicion might be supposed to attach to the French account of the respective strength of the armies, the disastrous and extraordinary consequences of this memorable action were such as to render exaggeration unnecessary, and almost impossible. The rapid successes of the French, and the accumulated misfortunes of the Prussians, are without a precedent in military history. The emperor of France immediately took possession of Potzdam and Berlin, where he levied vast contributions, and sent the sword of Frederick the Great as a trophy to Paris. The different corps of the Prussian army were, one after another, obliged to surrender to the enemy, whose divisions daily sent in immense numbers of prisoners, cannon, &c. The main body of the army, under prince Hohenloe, which consisted of 22,000 men, and constituted the last hope of Prussia, was obliged to surrender to the duke of Berg. The imperial city of Lubeck was carried by storm, and general Blucher, with above 9000 men, was obliged to capitulate, after a great part of his army had been cut in pieces or made prisoners.

It will for ever astonish the readers of military history, when they peruse the relations of this memorable battle, to find the Prussian corps every-where circumvented, their magazines taken or destroyed, and the scattered divisions of the army without ammunition, forage, or bread, and

literally starving in their own country. All the circumstances of this extraordinary contest indicate strange mismanagement in some of the governors of fortified places; nor can the rapid conquests of the Prussian territory be accounted for, except by admitting the fact, that that monarch had been so unfortunate as to lose the hearts of his subjects. Upon any other supposition the rapid successes of the French will remain a problem not easily solved. In the space of little more than a month, from October 9th to the 12th of November, they had, if we may credit their own account, taken no less than 140,000 prisoners, 250 standards, and above 4800 pieces of cannon, of which 300 were taken in the field, and above 4000 were found in Berlin and the fortresses which had capitulated.

The policy of Napoleon leading him to detach Saxony from Prussia, he released 6000 Saxon prisoners on their parole, and sent a friendly letter to the elector, who thereupon relinquished his intention of quitting Dresden; and towards the close of the year he signed a treaty of alliance with France, by which he became a member of the confederation of the Rhine, and received from this egregious "King-maker" the royal title. The Prussian provinces on the Lower Rhine, and the Hanoverian territory, were reduced by an army from Holland under Louis Buonaparte; and the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, who had refused to become a member of the Rhenish confederacy, was expelled from his capital and dominions by

general Mortier, who then took possession of Hamburg, and ordered the sequestration of all English property.

This was the prelude to a decree issued from Berlin by the French emperor, dated 20th November 1806, interdicting all commerce and correspondence between the countries under his government and the islands of Great Britain, which he declared to be in a state of blockade; denouncing all English property as lawful prize; and all vessels touching at any port in England, or any English colony, were excluded from the harbours of France, or the countries under its control. This was vindicated as a measure of retaliation for the flagrant violations of the laws of maritime neutrality by Great Britain; and, extravagant as the terms of the decree might seem, its effects were severely felt.

After the dreadful defeat of his army at Jena, the king of Prussia retired to Königsberg, where he was actively employed in collecting the scattered and feeble remains of his once formidable force. In the mean time the French, under Jerome Buonaparte, who had recently espoused a princess of Wirtemberg, grand-daughter of the late duke of Brunswick, having passed the Oder, made themselves masters of Silesia. The immense barrier which seemed to have wholly separated France and Russia was now broken down; and the emperor Alexander resolved to make a grand effort to protect his own dominions, as well as to support the throne of Prussia and the indepen-

dence of Europe. While marshals Davoust and Lasnes entered Prussian Poland, an immense force was collecting in different parts of the Russian empire, and began to move towards the frontier.

The Russians having crossed the Vistula, in order to check the progress of the enemy, on the 26th November met his advanced posts; but finding themselves possessed of a force unequal to the undertaking, they repassed that river; and two days after, the duke of Berg, with a division of the French army, entered Warsaw. The respective strength of France and Russia was now to be put to a decisive trial; and about a month after the forces of these two great powers came into contact, the winter campaign began in a most sanguinary manner by the battle of Pultusk. The Russian general Benningsen having taken a position at this place, was attacked by the French on the 26th December, led on by marshals Davoust and Lasnes, under the immediate direction of the emperor of France. Davoust with 10,000 men fell upon the left wing of the Russians; at the same time the attack on their right was extremely impetuous, and conducted by Napoleon in person. The conflict was extremely obstinate, and continued till night. The enemy was certainly repulsed; but the French and Russian accounts are extremely contradictory. Both sides laid claim to the victory, but neither gained ground. The loss was unquestionably great; and from subsequent circumstances it appears to have been nearly equal on both sides.

From the Russian official accounts it appears, that when general Benningsen's army broke up from Landshut, it consisted of only 70,000 men, the general having sent out several detachments. The French army, amounting to nearly 90,000, followed Benningsen closely, making continual attacks on his rear. On reaching Eylau, the Russian commander sent general Marcoff to take possession of the town, and a sanguinary conflict ensued between his corps and several columns of the enemy. The Russians, after an obstinate contest, made themselves masters of the town on the 7th of February; but the French advanced in such force, that they were

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obliged to retreat. In consequence of this reverse, general Benningsen ordered another division to advance, which, marching in three columns, bore down all opposition, and retook Eylau by assault.

On the following day the action was renewed, and became general. It would exceed the limits of historical summary to follow the official accounts of the various operations; but they assert, that all the attempts of the French cavalry to break the Russian columns were defeated. "In vain," says general Benningsen, "did the emperor of France lavish his last resources; in vain did he endeavour to excite the courage of his soldiers, and sacrifice so great a part of his army: the bravery and persevering courage of the Russians withstood all his efforts, and snatched from him a victory which had long remained doubtful."—These accounts state the loss of the French at

30,000 killed, 12,000 wounded, and 2000 prisoners, and add that twelve of the French eagles were taken. The loss of the Russians is stated at 12,000 killed, and 7900 wounded. From whatever quarter or cause the error may have originated, these statements must be monstrous exaggerations; and other Russian accounts diminish the numbers on both sides to less than one half, which seems to be the nearest approximation to truth.

The battle of Eylau commenced on the 7th of February about three in the afternoon, and, with a short intermission during the night, continued till midnight on the 8th. In all this time, the attacks of the French, under the immediate eye and direction of their emperor, were incessant and impetuous, but repulsed by the Russians with invincible bravery. The loss of men on both sides must therefore have been exceedingly great; but as regards the final issue of this memorable action, in which both sides claimed the victory, nothing can be more discordant, or more flatly contradictory, than the Russian official accounts and the French bulletins, which shews that neither of them is entitled to implicit credit. Subsequent circumstances go to prove that the action, however sanguinary, was indecisive, and that neither party could boast of any great advantage. At midnight, when the carnage ceased, the Russians remained masters of the field of battle; but in the morning they began to retreat, and left the French to take possession of Eylau.

From this period the grand armies of France

and Russia remained for a considerable time inactive. Warlike operations, however, continued in Swedish Pomerania, where, after a number of actions fought with various success, the Swedes were at last driven into Stralsund. In the month of April a division of the French army commenced the siege of Dantzic. The garrison made vigorous sorties, and several obstinate actions took place in the environs. General Kalkreuth, who commanded in Dantzic, ordered the houses in the suburbs to be destroyed to the value of nine millions of livres; and the damages occasioned in the city itself, by the cannonade and bombardment, were estimated at twelve millions. The Russians, notwithstanding their assumed victory at Eylau, could never make an effort for the relief of Dantzic, which, on the 28th of May, surrendered to the French by capitulation, after the garrison had been reduced from 16,000 to 9000 men, of whom not less than 4000 are said to have deserted. The capture of Dantzic was styled by the French the first fruits of their victory at Eylau, so decidedly claimed by general Benningsen; and it must be confessed, that the surrender of so important a city and fortress, in the very face of the Russian army, was an unfavourable omen.

This was a most eventful crisis in the affairs of the north of Europe, and the grand armies felt it as such; for they laboured incessantly to strengthen their positions, and increase their numbers. The French emperor, in order to concentrate his force, withdrew his troops from before Stralsund,



and ordered all those that could be spared from the garrisons of Prussia, to march towards the Vistula. At the same time, numerous bodies of troops were moving from Russia towards the theatre of war. In the month of May the king of Sweden arrived at Stralsund ; and the emperor of Russia quitted Petersburg, and repaired to his army. Thus every thing announced a momentous crisis.

The fatal day at length arrived which was to decide the mighty contest. That day was the 14th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Marengo. Having put his soldiers in mind of this circumstance, the emperor Napoleon prepared for an attack on the Russian position at Friedland. The battle did not commence till half-past five in the evening, when marshal Ney and general Marchand advanced, while general Bisson's division supported their left. The Russians attempted to turn marshal Ney with several regiments of cavalry, preceded by a numerous body of Cossacks. But general Latour Mauberg immediately formed his division of dragoons, and, advancing to the right at full gallop, repelled their charge. In the meanwhile general Victor ordered a battery of thirty pieces of cannon to be placed in the front of his centre ; and general Summermont having caused it to be moved about 400 paces forward, the Russians sustained a dreadful loss from its fire.

The different movements which were made to effect a diversion proved useless. Several co-

lums of the Russian infantry attacked the right of marshal Ney's division, but were charged with the bayonet, and driven into the Alle, in which river several thousands found their death. While Ney advanced to the ravine which surrounds the town of Friedland, the Russian imperial guards made an impetuous attack on his left. This corps was for a moment shaken; but general Dupont's division, which formed the right of the reserve, marched against the guards, and routed them with dreadful slaughter. The Russians then drew several reinforcements from their centre, and other corps of reserve, to defend Friedland; but, in defiance of all their efforts, the town was forced, and its streets covered with dead bodies.

At this moment the centre of the French, commanded by marshal Lasnes, was attacked; but the Russians could make no impression. This sanguinary contest was decided chiefly by the bayonet, and the result was the total defeat of the Russians. The carnage that now ensued was dreadful. According to the French bulletins, the Russians left from 15,000 to 18,000 dead on the field; and the number does not appear to be greatly exaggerated. But it is difficult to give implicit credit to their relations, when they state their own loss at no more than 500 killed, and 6000 wounded. The French took 80 pieces of cannon, a great number of caissons, and several standards,

On the following day the retreat of the Russians towards Koningsberg was cut off; but on the 16th at day-break they destroyed the bridges over the Progel, and, having burned or thrown into the water the stores accumulated in their magazines on the Alle, they continued their retrograde movement. At eight o'clock the same morning the French emperor ordered a bridge to be thrown over the Progel, and continued the pursuit. The Russians in their retreat destroyed all the magazines which they had in the villages. But a division of the French army under Soult took possession of Koningsberg, where they found 20,000 wounded Russians and Prussians, several hundred thousand quintals of grain, and a vast quantity of warlike stores, with 160,000 muskets, sent from England for the service of the Russian army. In this disastrous battle and retreat the Russians lost a great part of their artillery, and almost all their magazines and ammunition, on a line of 120 miles in extent.

The mysterious veil with which the operations on the Vistula had so long been covered by the contradictory assertions of the French bulletins and Russian dispatches, was now completely removed, and the broad glare of facts dispelled the illusion arising from fallacious representations. The battle of Friedland was not less decisive than those of Austerlitz and Jena, nor its consequences less hostile to the independence of Europe. Without confiding in accounts originating either at Paris or Petersburg, we have nearer home an im-

partial witness, whose talents for observation are indisputable, and who possessed ample means of information. Lord Hutchinson declared in the British senate, in a speech delivered February 8. 1808, that the Russians crossed the Niemen with a loss of 40,000 men, having in the space of eleven days lost no less than 27 generals, and 1848 officers killed or wounded.

This sanguinary action was followed by an interview between the emperors of France and Russia and the king of Prussia, on the 7th of July, and a treaty of peace was concluded at Tilsit between France and Russia, and a few days afterwards between France and Prussia. The principal articles were, that a part of the Prussian dominions, especially on the eastern side of the Elbe, should be annexed to the new kingdom of Westphalia. Those parts which had been wrested from Poland, and become subject to Prussia, were ceded to the king of Saxony, under the title of the duchy of Warsaw, with a free communication with Saxony by a military road through the king of Prussia's dominions. The city of Dantzic, with a surrounding territory of two leagues, was restored to independence. The navigation of the Vistula was to be free. Russia acknowledged Joseph Buonaparte and his brother Louis, as kings of Naples and Holland, and Jerome as king of Westphalia. The emperor of all the Russias also acknowledged the confederation of the Rhine, and promised to acknowledge all the sovereigns who might hereafter become

members of that confederation. All these princes and states were included in the treaty of peace. It was also stipulated, that hostilities should instantly cease between Russia and the Ottoman Porte; and the emperor of Russia agreed to accept the mediation of the emperor of France, for the conclusion of a peace between the two powers.

The French emperor also agreed to accept the mediation of the emperor of Russia, in order to negotiate and conclude a peace with Great Britain, under the condition, however, that this mediation should be accepted by England within a month after the conclusion of the treaty of Tilsit. By other articles of a secret nature, the ports of Prussia, as well as of Dantzic, were to be shut against the vessels and trade of Great Britain; and it is not certain whether the emperor of Russia was not bound by the same condition. Subsequent events, indeed, have excited an opinion in favour of the affirmative side of the question. It also appears, that, by another secret article, Russia had consented to cede Corfu and the Seven Islands as an appendage to France. In the month of August a Russian officer, attended by French commissioners, arrived there; and having convened the Senate, opened a dispatch from the emperor Alexander, in which his imperial majesty declared, that he renounced all the rights which he possessed in quality of protector of the Seven Islands, and ceded them to his majesty the emperor of the French and king of Italy. The French commissioners accepted

the renunciation, and took possession of the islands.

By this fatal war the Prussian monarchy lost nearly the half of its territory and of its subjects, with more than half of its revenues ; and Russia saw herself deprived of her extensive barrier against the dangerous and domineering power of France. The king of Sweden refused to accede to the treaty of Tilsit, and attempted the defence of Pomerania ; but his efforts were useless, as the whole power of France could now be directed to that quarter. His Swedish majesty, however, succeeded on the 19th and 20th of August in withdrawing his forces from Stralsund, before the enemy was apprised of his intention, after which he crossed the Baltic and retired into Sweden.

But we must now resume the narrative of the domestic concerns of our own country.

On the 19th of December 1806 the new parliament was opened by commission, and Mr Abbot was unanimously rechosen speaker. The speech delivered by the lord-chancellor declared, " That his Majesty's efforts for the restoration of peace had been disappointed by the ambition and injustice of the enemy ; that a fresh war had been at the same moment kindled in Europe, which had been attended with the most calamitous events ; but that under the most trying circumstances the conduct of the king of Sweden had been distinguished by the most honourable firmness, and that the happiest union continued to subsist between his majesty and the emperor of Russia.

The addresses moved in reply afforded ample ground of animadversion, but at length passed in both houses without a division.

After a short recess, lord Grenville, on the 2d A. D. 1807. January, brought in a bill for abolishing the slave trade. The chief debate took place on the second reading, when the measure was supported in a most able speech by the minister. In this expiring stage of the contest, the duke of Clarence adhered to his conviction formerly expressed, that there was not the *least* foundation for the charge which had been brought against the planters for ill treatment of their slaves; and warned their lordships of the *awful* consequences of a measure which would deprive the West India islands of the only mode by which they could acquire labourers. On the other hand, the duke of Gloucester, with true English feeling, declared, that he could not find words strong enough to express his abhorrence of that abominable traffic in human blood. He affirmed, that no question could come more closely home to our own bosoms, than that which concerned the happiness of myriads of our fellow-creatures. The resolution on their lordships' table branded the slave trade as contrary to humanity, justice, and policy; and the time was now come to act upon that resolution.

The principal advocates for the bill in the ensuing discussion were lords King, Moira, Holland, and Selkirk, with the bishop of Durham: the opponents of the measure were lords Westmoreland,

Sidmouth, Eldon, and Hawkesbury. On the division the numbers were, in favour of the bill 100 peers, against it 36. On its transmission to the commons it was defended with the most impressive eloquence by lord Howick, who was seconded by Mr Roscoe, member for Liverpool, the lords Mahon, Milton, Percy, and others, but especially by Mr Wilberforce, who, unwearied in his efforts, now saw the fruit of his labours. The bill was feebly opposed in the lower house ; and, on dividing, the numbers were, 283 for the abolition, against it 166.

On the 5th of January the papers relative to the late negotiation were taken into consideration. The conduct of government was ably vindicated by the chiefs of administration in both houses, and addresses voted without a division. There were individuals, however, who expressed their dissatisfaction on very opposite grounds. Mr Whitbread, in the commons, in a masterly speech, declared, that war, eternal war, ought not to be waged for Sicily and Dalmatia ; and he moved an amendment, expressive of " the hope entertained by the house, that his Majesty would make every arrangement, consistent with honour, for the restoration of peace." Lord Yarmouth declared his firm conviction, that the negotiation would have been brought to a favourable conclusion had it not been for the melancholy event of the death of Mr Fox ; and he thought the terms which had been rejected highly advantageous. Mr Canning, on the contrary, though he censured



the demand of the *uti possidetis* as totally inapplicable to the present state of things, professed himself unable to concur in the language of regret adopted by the address at the issue of the negociation, which, in his opinion, ought to have been broken off much sooner.

On the 29th of January the chancellor of the exchequer stated his plan of finance, which was so framed as to make provision for a series of years to come, on the very probable supposition of a continuance of the war: the loan for the present year was stated at twelve millions. Upon the resolutions moved and finally agreed to by the house, much debate arose, and very forcible objections were urged against them. But as this project was never carried into effect, it is needless to enter into the particulars.

On the 16th of February lord Grenville introduced a bill into the house of peers for the better regulation of the courts of justice in Scotland, and for establishing the trial by jury in civil cases. This bill imported the division of the court of session, consisting of fifteen judges, into three chambers, having concurrent jurisdiction, and constituting, when united, an intermediate court of appeal; thus essentially relieving the house of lords. This measure met with the approbation of the law lords Eldon and Ellenborough. In its farther progress, however, it was decidedly opposed by several peers, particularly by lord Redesdale, who professed to consider it as a breach of the Union. During the discussion, the lord presi-

dent of the court of session, the lord justice-clerk, and four other Scotch judges, were examined at the bar of the house, and difficulties arising, the bill was for the present postponed.

On the 20th of February lord Howick intimated his intention of preparing some additional and very necessary clauses for insertion in the mutiny bill. By the Irish mutiny act, passed in 1793, catholics were allowed to hold any rank in the army under that of general on the staff in Ireland, though in Great Britain they were disqualified to serve under severe penalties ; thus being deemed by law worthy of trust in one part of the United Kingdom, and unworthy in another. This anomaly it was the object of lord Howick to remedy, by making the provisions of the Irish act general. But on the 5th of March his lordship, in lieu of the proposed clauses, moved to bring in a bill for "enabling his Majesty to avail himself of the services of *all* his subjects, in his naval and military forces, on their taking the prescribed oath of allegiance;" for to grant this privilege to catholics and deny it to protestants, would have been manifestly unjust. It might be thought that a law so salutary and equitable would sufficiently recommend itself by its mere statement ; yet the motion of lord Howick was enforced with all the wisdom and eloquence of an accomplished statesman.

Mr Percival, late attorney-general, immediately rose to resist, what he styled one of the most dangerous measures which had ever been sub-

mitted to the judgment of the legislature. "Our ancient and venerable establishment, he contended, could only be preserved by making a stand against every fresh attempt at innovation, which, if encouraged, would not stop short of abolishing all that the wisdom of our ancestors had thought necessary to enact in defence of our religion. The present question was simply, Whether the legislature were prepared to give up the Protestant ascendancy in Ireland? This measure was, indeed, but a part of the principle of innovation which was gradually increasing; and these approaches were far more dangerous than if it were to come forward at once in all its frightful magnitude; and what might be at first denied by the wisdom of parliament, would be ultimately extorted from its weakness." Such was the nature of the alarm sounded in parliament; and the spirit of bigotry instantly awoke from its slumber, and answered to the call. After an animated debate, an early day was fixed for the second reading of the bill. This, however, was twice postponed; and on the 18th of March lord Howick gave notice, that "the bill was not intended, under the *present circumstances*, to be proceeded upon." These circumstances were of a nature so singular, as to require a particular elucidation.

On the 4th of February, a dispatch was received from the duke of Bedford, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, stating, "that a disposition had been manifested by the Irish catholics to prosecute their claims by petition to parliament." Desirous

to prevent an application so unseasonable, and at the same time to assure the catholics of their favourable disposition, an answer to the dispatch of the lord-lieutenant was prepared by ministers, stating their intention relative to the mutiny bill, a copy of which was transmitted to the king, accompanied by a cabinet minute. To this proposition the king expressed a strong dissent; and upon receiving his disapproval, the cabinet, on the 10th of February, made a respectful representation of the grounds of policy and principle upon which the measure in question was founded.

Lord Sidmouth, who was president of the council, had fairly avowed his readiness to concur in the extension of the Irish act, so far as to legalize the services of the Irish catholic officers in England, and no further. This he had made known to the king on being questioned by him, acknowledging, that there was no alternative but to repeal the Irish act, or make it operative in England. In consequence of this opinion, corroborated by the lord chancellor, who described the measure as merely a corollary from the Irish act, the king replied to the cabinet minute, "that, adverting to what had taken place in 1798, he would not prevent his ministers from submitting to the consideration of parliament the proposed clauses in the mutiny bill; but thought it necessary to declare, that he could not go one step farther; and trusted that this reluctance and concession would secure him from being distressed

by any future proposal connected with the catholic question."

Under this frail and limited sanction, nevertheless, the majority of the cabinet transmitted a dispatch to Ireland, exciting expectations far beyond the letter of the act of 1793, not only by removing the bar to higher military advancement, but extending the provisions of the act to the navy, and imparting the same privileges to English protestant dissenters.

Lord Sidmouth, on being apprised of the import of the new clauses introduced into the bill, plainly declared the necessity he should feel of opposing the measure in parliament; and, in a cabinet council held on the 1st of March, he stated his conviction, "that the extent of it was not understood by the king." Lord Grenville, however, expressing an opposite opinion, it was proposed by lord Howick to transmit to his Majesty a copy of the clauses in question, which was done on the following day, accompanied by a dispatch to the lord-lieutenant of the same tenor. These documents were returned without comment; but on the 4th of March the king, having previously conferred with lord Sidmouth, declared to lord Howick, at an audience held after the levee, his dislike and disapprobation of the measure, without however, in express words, withdrawing the consent which he had already given. The ministers, therefore, still acted under a delusion, and the obnoxious bill was ordered to be read a second time on the 12th of March.

During this interval lord Sidmouth gave notice of his resolution to resign his office, with a view to oppose the bill. But the king refused to accept his resignation; and mentioned in strong terms his surprise at the extent of the proposition made in the house of commons, after his declaration to lord Howick. On the same day lord Grenville was informed by the king, in a manner which could not possibly be mistaken, that to those parts of the bill which went beyond the limits of the act of 1793, he could not be induced to give his consent. Lord Sidmouth therefore prudently advised them to modify the bill, in such a manner as to free it from objections evidently insuperable. And lord Grenville, with the concurrence of his colleagues, respectfully apprised the king of the misconception that had prevailed, and their present purpose to modify the measure, so as to confine it precisely within those limits to which his Majesty understood himself to have consented. This intimation was graciously received by the king, who gave the strongest assurances of his conviction, that the intentions of the ministers towards him were perfectly honourable.

It was thus fondly hoped that the difficulty was got over, and that ministers would be able to proceed with the bill, modified so as to meet the wishes of all parties; but, most unaccountably, at a subsequent cabinet meeting held on the 15th March, to which neither the lord-chancellor, the lord president, nor the lord chief-

justice were summoned, a resolution was taken to abandon the measure altogether. Nor was this the only, or the principal indiscretion. A minute was transmitted to the king, who now conceived that an amicable and final explanation had taken place, announcing the relinquishment of the measure; but at the same time asserting "their right and intention to avow their opinions in parliament respecting their withdrawal of the bill, and in all future discussions relating to the catholic question; and also to submit for his Majesty's decision from time to time, such advice respecting Ireland as the course of circumstances and the interests of the empire should require."

This superfluous declaration of "rights" which had never been controverted, excited in the breast of the king the greatest uneasiness and apprehension. He began to think that the question was never to be at rest, and that he was to remain perpetually exposed to a recurrence of importunity and anxiety. The royal answer, unadvisedly given, expressed some dissatisfaction at the parliamentary avowals which the ministers supposed to be necessary. It declared, that "his Majesty would never consent to any further concessions; and demanded from ministers a positive and written assurance, that he should never again be distressed by a recurrence to this subject." With regard to a demand of this nature, there could be no hesitation; and it was in dutiful terms represented to the king, "that those who were intrusted by him with the administration of the

affairs of his extensive empire, were bound by every obligation to submit, without reserve, the best advice they could frame to meet the exigencies of the times; and that the situation of Ireland constituted the most formidable part of the present difficulties."

On the day succeeding this communication, his Majesty, with the most gracious expressions of his satisfaction in regard to every other part of their conduct, announced his intention of making a change of ministers; and on the 18th of March lord Howick was authorized to notify this intention to parliament. On the 25th of March his Majesty's pleasure was signified, that the members of the present administration should deliver up their seals of office. Thus suddenly was dissolved this famous, celebrated whig administration, from the combined talents and virtues of which so much had been expected by the nation. Their fall was the subject of much exultation to the tories, and of little regret to the whigs, who were deeply disappointed that no radical change of system had taken place. Mr Fox, who alone could be expected to balance the weight of lord Grenville in the cabinet, was in every point of view an irreparable loss. With him the spirit of peace departed; the prospect of another coalition arose to view, and hope once more told her flattering tale.

The general conduct of the whig administration was nevertheless highly honourable to themselves, and advantageous to the country. The



limitation of military service, the various reforms of office, the abstaining from all reversionary grants, and from all political prosecutions; with the amelioration of Scottish jurisprudence, and the liberal boon to Ireland in their immediate contemplation; but above all, the abolition of the slave trade, that disgrace to humanity, will make this administration, short as it was in duration, for ever memorable in the annals of Britain. In relation to the war alone, their policy was unadvised and unfortunate; and though they did not originally repose upon a bed of roses, it cannot be denied that the state of Europe was at this moment incomparably worse than at the period of their entrance into office.

On the 19th of March, while the arrangements of the new ministry were still pending, a resolution passed the house of commons, on the motion of Mr Banks, "that no office ought hereafter to be granted in reversion." And as it was understood that the chancellorship of the duchy of Lancaster had been offered to Mr Percival for life, as an inducement to relinquish his professional pursuits, and take upon him the office of chancellor of the exchequer, an address was agreed upon, by a majority of 228 to 115 voices, praying his Majesty "not to grant the said office, or any other not usually held for life, for any other term than during pleasure;" to which the king returned a gracious and satisfactory answer.

The new administration was completely formed before the end of March. At the head of the

treasury, after an interval of more than twenty years, was for the second time placed the duke of Portland, now from age and infirmity regarded as a cypher in office, the efficient power residing in Mr Percival as chancellor of the exchequer. Lord Eldon resumed the great seal; the earl of Westmoreland the privy-seal; and earl Camden was made president of the council: lord Mulgrave was appointed first lord of the admiralty; the earl of Chatham master of the ordnance; lords Castlereagh, Hawkesbury, and Mr Canning, were the secretaries for the war, home, and foreign departments: Mr Robert Dundas presided at the India board; Mr George Rose was made treasurer of the navy; sir James Pulteney, secretary at war; sir Vicary Gibbs, and sir Thomas Plumer, attorney and solicitor-generals.

The duke of Richmond succeeded the duke of Bedford in the government of Ireland. The character of the late viceroy had, in the progress of his administration, been duly appreciated by the sagacity of the Irish nation. Mild and unassuming in his deportment, guarded in his measures, yet decided in his principles, and firm in his purposes, he was peculiarly calculated to check the impetuosity, and gain the confidence of the catholics, without losing the esteem or giving unnecessary offence to the protestants. His private virtues corresponded with, and corroborated those displayed in his public life; and ambition appeared foreign to his nature, except as it tended to enlarge the sphere of his benefi-

cence. On his return to England, he received distinguished marks of kindness from the king, who expressed the highest approbation of his conduct in the government, with much regret for his resignation of it.

An adjournment of both houses of parliament to the 8th April was now thought expedient, and motions were made to that effect. Lords Grenville and Howick entered into ample explanations respecting the causes of the late change in administration, and in vindication of their personal honour, which indeed was above all question. And on the day which succeeded the re-assembling of parliament, Mr Brand, member for the county of Herts, moved, "That it was contrary to the first duties of the confidential servants of the crown to restrain themselves, by any pledge, express or implied, from offering to the king any advice that the course of circumstances may render necessary for the welfare and security of any part of his extensive empire."

This was a constitutional axiom, which no one could presume to deny; but upon that very account it formed a weak practical ground for a political trial of strength. General Crawford apologized for his present dissent from those respected persons with whom he used to act; and proceeded to observe, that the motion contained an abstract proposition, the adoption of which would seem as it were to arraign the sovereign at the bar of parliament; and its tendency was to cause our government to degenerate into a tyran-

nical oligarchy. Mr Whitshed Keane felt himself compelled to vote against the motion, because it amounted to an issue between his Majesty and his late ministers at the bar of the house. Mr Percival freely admitted the proposition as true in the abstract, but contended that it must be taken in conjunction with circumstances. And if the sovereign himself was to be brought in as the responsible person, it was impossible not so to consider it. With respect to the "implied pledge," if it referred to the present ministers, he could assure the house that they came into office unfettered by any pledge whatever. Mr Canning declared, that this was the first instance since the time of king Charles I. that a sovereign had been judged at the bar of that house. It was, however, some consolation to reflect, that from such judgment there still lay an appeal to the tribunal of the country. The house at length divided, on the motion of Mr Osborne for the order of the day ; in favour of which the numbers were 258 against 222 voices.

There are, no doubt, difficult cases, though happily of rare occurrence, which perhaps cannot be provided against by any specific remedy. The pledge required by the king certainly was one of this kind : it was irregular and unconstitutional. But it was his own personal act, passing through no ministerial medium, and to which, therefore, no responsibility could attach. As parliament could not found any proceeding upon this anomaly, it was the part of wisdom to abstain

from bringing it under their notice. Two days only after this last failure, Mr Lyttleton moved a resolution in the house of commons, at the close of a short and able speech, "That this house considering a firm and efficient administration as necessary at the present crisis, feels deep regret at the late change in his Majesty's councils." Had this temperate and guarded motion been originally adopted, it would probably have proved efficacious. But the first division was decisive; and after a vehement debate the order of the day was carried by 244 against 198 voices.

In these political contentions the prince of Wales did not appear to take any interest; and since the decease of Mr Fox, his communications with the late ministers were believed to be much less frequent and cordial. The marriage of this great personage had, from causes imperfectly developed, proved very unhappy; and an early separation had followed what was at the time regarded as a forced and reluctant union. The subsequent conduct of the princess was far from being so discreet and guarded as was requisite, under circumstances which required on her part more than ordinary prudence. In consequence of representations made to his royal highness, and by him to the king, a committee of council was appointed to investigate the charges against her, consisting of the law lords, Erskine and Ellenborough, with other distinguished peers. Their report acquitted the princess of serious culpability, though it admitted, as the evidence

subjoined but too plainly proved, that her conduct was liable to the imputation of levity and indiscretion.

On the 27th of April 1807 the parliament was prorogued by commission, and dissolved on the 29th, the lord Chancellor declaring, in his Majesty's name, "the anxiety he felt to recur to the sense of his people, while the events which have recently taken place are yet fresh in their recollection." It was moreover intimated that his Majesty felt, that, in resorting to this expedient, he demonstrated in the most unequivocal manner his own conscientious persuasion of the rectitude of the motives upon which he had acted, and gave his people the best opportunity of testifying their determination to support him in every exercise of the prerogatives of the crown conformable to the sacred obligations under which they are held, and conducive to the welfare of the kingdom and the security of the constitution. The speech afterwards adverted to the divisions naturally and unavoidably excited, by the late unfortunate and uncalled-for agitation of a question so interesting to the feelings and opinions of his people.

This appearance of the king as a kind of antagonist to his late ministers, and as personally concerned in a question of policy, could not fail of giving unusual activity to the party spirit in the nation, especially as the topic of dispute addressed itself to those religious feelings which operate so strongly on the national character. The corpora-

tion of London, who regarded the dismissal of ministers under that impression, presented an address to his Majesty on the 22d of April, in which they expressed "their warmest and most unfeigned gratitude for the dignified and decided support and protection given by him to the Protestant reformed religion as by law established, and for the firm and constitutional exercise of his royal prerogative to preserve the independence of the crown." It was therefore not surprising, that on the general election which succeeded the dissolution of parliament, the cry of "no Popery," and "the danger of the church," was made use of for political purposes, and was found capable of inflaming the minds of the multitude; though in the metropolis, where there might have been danger of reviving the dreadful outrages of 1780, the effect was inconsiderable. The most respectable of the English Roman Catholics very properly, at this period, published an address to their Protestant fellow-subjects, laying before them satisfactory documents to prove the purity of their principles in respect to their king and country, and entreating them to declare, when they had perused these documents, whether his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects maintain a single tenet inconsistent with the purest loyalty, or interfering in the slightest degree with any one duty which an Englishman owes to his God, his king, or his country.

Before closing this chapter, it may be necessary to revert back a little in our narrative, for the pur-

pose of noticing some very important military and naval occurrences which took place during the year 1807, and in which England bore a conspicuous part.

On the refusal of the emperor of Russia to ratify the treaty of D'Oubril, general Sebastiani was sent to Constantinople with a commission from the French government, by every possible means, to induce the Sublime Porte to declare war against Russia; and he obtained an edict prohibiting to Russian ships of war the passage of the Dardanelles. But the court of St Petersburg, not waiting the result of the negotiation, marched an army into Moldavia, and took possession of Choczim, Bender, and Jassi; in consequence of which a declaration of war issued from the Porte, December 29. 1806, and an English squadron took on board the Russian and British ambassadors. Between Great Britain and Turkey the strictest amity had subsisted since the victory of the Nile; nor was the slightest injury or infraction of treaties pretended, when, with the view of compelling the Turks to an immediate accommodation, or rather submission, the British squadron under sir John Duckworth, in the month of February 1807, received orders to force the passage of the Dardanelles, and present himself in hostile array before Constantinople. In sailing through the Strait the squadron sustained a heavy cannonade from the opposite shores, and a small Turkish armament was destroyed by sir Sidney Smith.



On the 20th of February, under the sanction of a flag of truce, Ysak Bey, one of the Turkish ministers, came on board, professing an earnest desire on the part of the sultan, Selim III. of giving satisfaction. But the demand of Britain was no less than the delivery of all the ships of war belonging to the Porte. The negotiation continued till the 27th, and this interval was diligently employed by the Turks, under the direction of French engineers, in erecting batteries on both sides of the long and narrow strait; and a great force was collected, both by land and sea, to prevent the egress of the enemy. The English admiral, finding himself out-manœuvred even by Turkish artifice, after all his high and menacing language, thought only of retreat; and weighing anchor on the 1st of March, he succeeded in forcing his passage through the straits, though not without incurring the most imminent peril. Farther delay would have been fatal; he therefore hastened to repass the castles of Sestos and Abydos, which saluted him with the fire of vast blocks of marble, one of which, weighing 800 lbs., cut in two the main-mast of the Windsor man-of-war. None escaped without damage, and the expedition, which was generally condemned as no less impolitic than unjust, cost about 250 men killed and wounded, without conferring any advantage on the country; and indeed the only effect produced by it was to confirm the influence of France at the Porte.

The failure on this occasion appeared to be in some measure compensated by the success of an attempt against another seat of the Ottoman power. On the 5th of March, a force of about 5000 men was sent from Messina, under the command of general Fraser, of which, on the 16th, a part anchored to the westward of Alexandria. The English consul residing in this place advised the general not to delay landing his troops, though many of the transports had not yet arrived, because the French consul was endeavouring to procure the admission of a body of Albanians to defend the town. This was accordingly put in execution on the 18th; and the troops having taken possession of the castle of Aboukir, and the cut between lakes Maadie and Mareotis, Alexandria capitulated on the 20th. By the articles of capitulation, the vessels belonging to the government, and all public property, were given up to the British; the crews were to be sent to a Turkish port, but under condition of not serving against England, or its allies, till exchanged. The loss by which this success was obtained was inconsiderable; and on the day of the treaty the missing transports arrived, and two days afterwards sir John Duckworth's squadron.

As there would be no danger of a scarcity of provisions at Alexandria, provided Rosetta and Rhamanie were in the occupation of the British, general Fraser, on the 27th, detached a body of 1500 men to take possession of the former; but their commander incautiously marching into the

town without previous examination, the troops received so brisk a fire from the roofs and windows, that, after the loss of 300 killed and wounded, they found it necessary to retreat to Aboukir. The want becoming more urgent, another corps of about 2500, under general Stewart, was sent to reduce Rosetta. The summons to surrender being disregarded, they began to erect batteries against the place; and as a succour of Mamelukes was expected by the British, lieutenant-colonel Macleod was detached to seize a post in order to facilitate their junction. Many days passed in fruitless expectation; at length a great number of vessels were descried sailing down the Nile, which were not doubted to contain a reinforcement to the enemy from Cairo. Orders were immediately sent to colonel Macleod to return from his position; but they were unfortunately intercepted, and his detachment was completely cut off. General Stewart retreated, fighting all the way, to Alexandria; and this attempt on Rosetta cost 1000 men in killed, wounded, and missing. A formidable force of the enemy now approaching Alexandria, the inhabitants of which were also disaffected, a flag of truce was sent by general Fraser, offering immediately to quit Egypt with his army on condition that the British prisoners should be liberated, which was readily agreed to, and on the 23d of September the troops sailed for Sicily.

Large reinforcements, under the command of general sir Samuel Achmuty and admiral Stir-

ling, were landed, in the month of January, near Monte Video, sir Home Popham having been recalled from that station, in order that he might be put upon his trial by court-martial, for engaging unauthorized in an expedition of such magnitude. On arriving at Maldonado, the general resolved to make an attempt on Monte Video, it being the only place on the river which could be assailed with probable advantage; and on January the 18th the troops were landed near the town. A body of about 6000 men marched out the next day to attack them, but were repulsed with great slaughter, and the British force afterwards commenced the siege of the place. The works were found strong, and were ably defended; but a practicable breach being made on the 2d of February, it was resolved no longer to delay an assault. This was effected before day-break on the next morning; and after a severe action, in which 560 of the assailants were killed or wounded, and more than double that number of the defenders, every thing was carried except the citadel, which soon after surrendered. The general, in his dispatches, mentions a circumstance highly to the credit of his troops, as well as of their commander, that "early in the morning the town was quiet, and the women were peaceably walking the streets." The admiral co-operated in this brilliant achievement, having landed 800 marines to assist the land forces, and arranged his ships so as to prevent any escape from the harbour. The prizes captured at Monte Video

were 57 West Indiamen and merchantmen, besides several gun-boats and armed vessels.

Previous to the reception of intelligence in England of the recapture of Buenos Ayres by the Spaniards, it had been resolved by the ministry to send out an expedition for the reduction of the whole province of Chili. For this purpose a force of 4200 men was placed under the command of brigadier-general Crawford, which sailed in the end of October 1806, accompanied by a naval force under admiral Murray. The intelligence above-mentioned occasioned an order to be afterwards dispatched for the expedition to change its object, and proceed to the river La Plata. It was overtaken at the Cape of Good Hope, and accordingly sailed for the new destination, where it arrived June 14th, and raised the British force there to 9500 men.

General Whitelocke, who had in the mean time been nominated to the supreme command of the forces in South America, left England in March, taking with him an additional force of 1630 men, the service expected from him being the reduction of the whole province of Buenos Ayres. At this time two parties existed in the city of that name; one was devoted entirely to the Spanish government, the other entertained views of throwing off the yoke of the mother-country, and of erecting an independent state. The latter were thought prepared to join the British, if a promise were made them of securing their independence; but as there was a probability that

the restoration of the province would be made a condition of peace with Spain, there was an obvious difficulty of treating with this party.

General Whitelocke arrived in the river La Plata in May, and took the command of the troops. On the 28th of June the united force, to the number of 7800 men, was landed about thirty miles to the eastward of Buenos Ayres; and, after a fatiguing march, the different divisions assembled in the suburbs of that city, which was nearly invested. On the morning of July 5th a general attack was ordered, each corps to enter by the streets opposite to it, and all with unloaded muskets. The greatest intrepidity was displayed in the arduous attempt to execute this plan, which was so far successful, that two strong posts were gained in the town, but at the expense of 2500 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the fire from the tops of the houses, and every advantageous position, upon the exposed and defenceless troops, having been most murderous.

On the following morning, general Linieres sent a letter to the English commander, offering to give up all the prisoners taken in this bloody rencounter, and also all those made with general Beresford, if he would desist from any further attack, and withdraw the British armament from La Plata; intimating, that such was the exasperation of the populace, he could not answer for the safety of the prisoners if offensive operations were persisted in. General Whitelocke, influenced, as he said, by this consideration, and

reflecting on the little advantage to be obtained from the possession of a country absolutely hostile, agreed to the proposal. This termination of an enterprise, from which much had been expected, occasioned great dissatisfaction; and the general on his return was tried by a court-martial, whose sentence was, "that he be cashiered, and declared totally unfit and unworthy to serve his Majesty in any military capacity whatever;"—a decision confirmed by the king, and approved of by the public. It was however thought, that a censure was not less merited by those who had recommended, for such an employment, a man whose military reputation appears never to have entitled him to a trust of that importance.

In balance of these disasters, the Dutch island of Curaçoa was, early in the year 1807, reduced by a small squadron under the command of captain Brisbane, detached from the fleet of admiral Dacres. The harbour was defended by regular fortifications, of which Fort Amsterdam alone mounted sixty-six pieces of cannon; and across the entrance were moored two frigates and two armed schooners. The bravery of the British, however, in a very short time, and with an inconsiderable loss, carried the forts by storm, and the shipping by boarding; and a capitulation yielded the island to his Britannic Majesty, the garrison and crews of the ships of war remaining prisoners.

## CHAPTER IV.

1807—1808.

THE new parliament assembled on the 22d of June 1807, when Mr Abbot was unanimously re-elected speaker of the house of commons. The parties of the late and present ministers mustered in all their strength, and five hundred and five members of the commons, the greatest number ever known on the occasion, attended the delivery of the king's speech. The lords commissioners had it in command from his Majesty to state, "that he was deeply impressed with the peculiar importance, at the present moment, of cherishing a spirit of union and harmony amongst his people, as such a spirit would most effectually promote the prosperity of the country at home, and give vigour and efficacy to its counsels and its arms abroad." The king, moreover, acquainted his parliament, that since the events which led to the dissolution, "he had received, in numerous addresses from his subjects, the warmest assurances of their affectionate attachment to his person and government, and of their firm resolution to support him in maintaining the just rights of his crown, and the true principles of the constitution." His Majesty further expresses his confidence, that he shall experience in all the deliberations of parliament, a determination to afford



him an equally loyal, zealous, and affectionate support.

This address from the throne was viewed in the light of a manifesto against a party in the state, and it therefore was not to be expected that the corresponding addresses would pass with unanimity. Accordingly, in the house of lords, lord Fortescue moved an amendment, strongly censuring the measure of the dissolution of parliament, and the reasons which the new ministers had offered for its justification, which, upon a division, was rejected by a majority of 160 to 67. A similar amendment, moved in the house of commons by lord Howick, was negatived by 350 to 155; and a subsequent motion of inquiry into the state of the nation, was negatived by 322 to 136 voices. Thus the solidity of the present administration was fully established.

In consequence of the distracted state of Ireland, which had greatly increased since the recall of the duke of Bedford, the state of affairs in that country became an early and prominent topic of parliamentary discussion. A bill was therefore moved for by sir Arthur Wellesley, then secretary to the lord-lieutenant, for the suppression of insurrection in that country, and to prevent the disturbance of the peace. The provisions were to be the same with those of the insurrection act of 1796, with respect to the power of the lord-lieutenant to proclaim disturbed counties, and the authority of the magistrates to arrest persons found out of their dwellings between sunset and

sunrise ; but with the requirements, that persons so arrested should be tried at the quarter-sessions by the magistrates and assistant barristers, with the addition of a king's counsel sent for the purpose. Another bill was to prevent improper persons from keeping arms, by certain regulations. Both these passed into laws, though not without considerable opposition. Their necessity was admitted by Mr Grattan.

Lord Castlereagh brought forward in the commons a new military plan, the object of which was to augment the regular army from the militia, and to supply the deficiencies accruing to the latter by a supplementary militia. This was to be effected by means of two bills, the operation of which would give at least 38,000 men to the gross military force of the country, and 28,000 to the regular army. His lordship accordingly moved the bills, which, after long debates, were passed in both houses. A bill sent up from the lower house against granting reversions of offices, was, on a division of fifteen peers to nine, ordered to be read a second time that day three months. This, however, was accompanied by a strong protest ; and the resolution of the commons stigmatizing in no very ceremonious terms that flagrant abuse, operated as a bar to its continuance. On the 14th of August the parliament was prorogued by commission. The most remarkable portion of the speech delivered on that occasion by the lord-chancellor, was couched in the following terms :—" His Majesty trusts that his

parliament and his people will always be ready to support him in every measure which may be necessary to defeat the designs of his enemies, and to maintain against any hostile confederacy those just rights which, as essential to the honour of his crown and the true interests of his people, he is determined never to surrender."

In the course of the summer an affair arose, which occasioned a painful understanding between Great Britain and the United States of America. The Chesapeake, American frigate of forty-four guns, being known to have several English deserters on board, representations of the fact were made to the American secretary, to which no satisfactory answer was given. Captain Humphreys, in the Leopard, was therefore ordered to search the American vessels for deserters, a liberty which was to be reciprocal. Having, on the 28th of June, come up with the Chesapeake, he sent a boat with advice of the information which he had received concerning the deserters, and of his orders to search the ship. This being refused by commodore Barron, the British commander fired several shots, to which no attention was paid: he then fired a broadside into the Chesapeake, which she returned by some scattered shot, and on receiving a second broadside, immediately struck her colours.

On examining the American frigate the deserters were found; but in the rencounter the Chesapeake had six men killed and twenty-one wounded: with the latter she returned to port in a very

shattered state. When the facts were known in America, the public mind became exasperated on account of it in a very high degree. The inhabitants of Norfolk, and several other places, entered into violent resolutions; and a proclamation was issued by the president, Mr Jefferson, prohibiting all intercourse between the American States and the armed vessels of Great Britain. A reconciliation was however attempted, and negotiations were long carried on between the two countries: but the disputes were revived by circumstances hereafter to be mentioned; and the question of peace or war, between Great Britain and America, remained long in a state of uncertainty.

From the conclusion of the treaty of Tilsit it became increasingly evident, from the situation of affairs on the continent, that Denmark could not long maintain her neutrality. At the same time, the exertions of the Danish government in augmenting its marine, and collecting great quantities of warlike stores in the arsenals, seemed to indicate preparations for approaching hostilities. The British ministry had a strong suspicion, or rather a positive assurance, that these hostilities were to be directed against England. In every view of the subject, it was thought highly expedient to prevent the Danish fleet from falling into the hands of the French government, who were said to have formed the design of turning the maritime force of Denmark and Portugal against Great Britain. His Britannic Majesty therefore judged

it expedient, to request from the court of Denmark the temporary deposit of the Danish ships of the line in some of the British ports. This proposal was made in the most friendly manner, representing the indispensable necessity of such a measure, under the relative circumstances of the neutral and belligerent powers of Europe, as the only means of security against the mischiefs which the French were meditating through the medium of the Danish navy.

In order to give weight to the negotiations, a formidable naval and military force, under admiral Gambier and lord Cathcart, was sent to the Baltic, with the view of protecting Denmark against the resentment of France in case of an amicable result, or to enforce compliance should her government reject the proposal. On the arrival of the British armament in the Baltic, the Danish cabinet having refused all terms of accommodation, the troops began to disembark at the village of Wibeck, about half-way between Elsinour and Copenhagen, on the 16th of August, and the landing was effected without opposition. Military operations soon commenced, and the British troops gained many important advantages. On the 29th, general sir Arthur Wellesley totally defeated the Danish army, which lost a considerable number in killed and wounded, independent of about sixty officers, and 1100 men made prisoners.

The British army then invested Copenhagen, and operations for commencing the siege were

carried on with unremitted activity. All the preparations being completed, on the 1st of September the city was summoned, and the offers renewed which at different times had been made to the crown-prince and the governor. The summons producing no effect, the bombardment both from the land batteries and the shipping commenced on the following day, and continued till the evening of the 5th, when a proposal for capitulating was made by the garrison. On the following day the basis of the capitulation was agreed on: the principal articles were, that the ships and vessels of war of every description, together with all the naval stores, should be delivered up to the disposal of his Britannic Majesty; and that the British troops should, within the space of six weeks, or sooner if possible, evacuate Zealand. A mutual and unconditional restitution of prisoners was to take place; all property, public and private, was to be respected, except the shipping and naval stores; and all the British property, sequestered in consequence of the rupture, was to be restored to the owners.

The Danish navy consisted of eighteen ships of the line; one of ninety-six, two of eighty-four, twelve of seventy-four, and three of sixty-four guns; fifteen frigates, five brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats;—a force which, in the hands of the emperor of the French, might have proved a means of great annoyance to Great Britain.

The loss of the English in this expedition was very inconsiderable, considering the magnitude

of the object attained. On board the fleet it amounted to only about fifty killed and wounded ; and the army had not more than 208 killed, wounded, and missing, during the siege of Copenhagen, exclusive of a trifling number in the previous operations. The city, however, suffered severely by the bombardment ; not less than 1100 of the inhabitants are said to have been killed, and the number of houses destroyed was estimated at 400, besides many others greatly damaged. The capitulation, however, was not ratified by the crown-prince ; and the Danish government, rejecting every conciliatory proposal, issued a formal declaration of war against England. Notwithstanding, however, these demonstrations of determined hostility, the occupation of Zealand requiring a greater number of troops than Great Britain could spare from other services, the country was evacuated according to the convention ; and from that period the war with Denmark produced no important events.

This expedition, however, though evidently necessary to the security of his Britannic Majesty's dominions against the machinations of France, served as an ostensible pretext to Russia for commencing hostilities against England. On the 31st of October the emperor Alexander issued a declaration, in which he accused the British ministry of rejecting his mediation for peace ; of not co-operating with the allies against France during the war ; of sending troops against Buenos Ayres and Alexandria, instead of making a diver-

sion in Italy, or some other part of the European continent ; and particularly inveighed against the conduct of England in attacking Denmark, and troubling the commerce of Russia. In consequence of these causes of complaint, his imperial majesty declared, that all friendly intercourse was broken off between Russia and Great Britain, and an imperial ukase was immediately published, ordering the detention of all British ships and property. The first care of the court of St Petersburg was to put the fort of Cronstadt in the most formidable state of defence ; but the war between Russia and England proceeded little farther than to an interruption of commercial intercourse.

The system adopted by the belligerent powers was indeed particularly harassing to the mercantile interest. In the month of November 1806 the French emperor issued at Berlin a decree, which declared the British islands in a state of blockade. He shut the ports of the countries under his dominion or control against all vessels that had cleared out from Great Britain ; and subjected to confiscation all neutral vessels that had cargoes of British produce or manufacture. In support of this regulation he decreed, that neutral vessels, coming into any port of his dominions, should bring with them a " certificate of origin," under the signature of the French consul at the port from which they cleared out, attesting that no part of their cargo consisted of British manufacture or produce ; and that all vessels met at



sea without such a certificate, should be liable to capture.

In January 1807, the British government opposed to the commercial restrictions of France, a measure, which interdicted the coasting trade of the enemy to neutrals, by issuing an order subjecting to seizure all vessels, of whatever nation, trading from one hostile port to another with hostile property. This, however, was not deemed an adequate retaliation; and in the month of November the famous orders in council were issued, declaring France in a state of blockade, with all the countries under her immediate power and influence; and subjecting to seizure all vessels whatever that should attempt to trade between neutral and hostile ports, or that should have on board any such certificate as was required by the Berlin decree. By these orders, neutral vessels destined for a hostile port were directed first to touch at some port of Great Britain, from whence, after the payment of certain duties, they might be allowed to proceed; and when clearing out with a cargo from any hostile port, they were enjoined to come to Great Britain. These restrictive regulations instituted by France and Great Britain, proved extremely inconvenient to the Americans, who were become the general carriers especially of colonial produce. The congress retaliated by an embargo in all the ports of the United States; and, notwithstanding the consequent annihilation of their commerce, persisted in the measure. It appears that the Americans had

resolved to adopt a manufacturing system,—a measure extremely injurious to the trade of Great Britain.

The autumn of this year presented a new and interesting spectacle in modern history,—the voluntary migration of a European court into the southern hemisphere. Portugal had long been the faithful ally of Great Britain, and both countries found their interest in the connexion. The former received political support and protection; the latter enjoyed a lucrative commerce. Great Britain was the basis on which the independence of Portugal rested; and Lisbon was one of the sources from which London derived its opulence. But the disastrous circumstances of Europe interrupted this enjoyment of reciprocal advantages. The peace of Tilsit having freed the French emperor from all apprehensions in the north, he was left at leisure to pursue his schemes of aggrandizement in the south. The entrance of his armies into Spain, and his threats of invading Portugal, intimidated the court of Lisbon into a compliance with his requisitions for shutting the ports of that kingdom against the ships and commerce of Great Britain, to which effect a decree was issued at Lisbon, 22d October 1807.

In consequence of these proceedings, his Britannic Majesty, though he had generously resolved not to resent those acts of unwilling hostility to which the consent of the prince-regent of Portugal had been extorted, nevertheless deemed it expedient to send a squadron to the mouth of

the Tagus, to act as future circumstances might render it necessary. But the exclusion of British commerce from the Portuguese ports did not satisfy the tyrant of the continent; and the appearance of a French army on the frontier of Portugal induced the prince-regent to sign an order for the detention of all British subjects, and the sequestration of all British property. This decree bears date November 8. 1807; but the event had been long foreseen, and most of the British subjects had previously removed their effects. These measures, however, although the effect of compulsion, placed England and Portugal virtually in a state of hostility. Lord Strangford, the British ambassador, demanded his passports; presented a final remonstrance against the conduct of the court of Lisbon; and proceeding to the squadron of sir Sidney Smith, a rigorous blockade was established at the mouth of the Tagus.

The full compliance of the court of Lisbon with the requisitions of the French emperor could not, however, preserve its dominions from his rapacity. He had marked out Portugal for his prey; and no principle of generosity or of justice could induce him to deviate from his plans of aggrandizement. It is difficult to conceive a more critical situation than that in which the prince-regent of Portugal was placed, being in a state of hostility with England, whose alliance he had been compelled to renounce, and with the French emperor, who had declared, "that the

house of Braganza should cease to reign." The French army had entered Portugal, and was advancing towards the capital, while the British fleet blockaded the mouth of the Tagus. At this important crisis of the Portuguese monarchy, lord Strangford having received fresh instructions, on the 27th of November returned to Lisbon to renew the negotiations. His lordship had immediately the most interesting communications with the court, and perceived that the prince-regent wisely directed his apprehensions to the French army, and his hopes to the British fleet. After receiving the most positive assurances of the protection of the British navy, his royal highness speedily came to the resolution of removing the royal family and the seat of government to Brazil. Little time was left for deliberation or delay, either in forming resolutions or making arrangements for departure, as the French army under general Junot had already advanced to Abrantes, within about three days' march of the capital.

In this situation of affairs, the embarkation was so expeditiously performed, that on the morning of the 29th the Portuguese fleet sailed out of the Tagus, having on board the prince of Brazil, with the whole of the royal family of Braganza, together with a number of persons attached to its fortunes. The French troops were already arrived in the vicinity of Lisbon, and from the hills had a view of the fleet as it dropped down the river. This fleet, which carried to a distant quarter of

the globe the hopes and fortunes of the Portuguese monarchy, consisted of four ships of the line; one of eighty-four, four of seventy-four, and three of sixty-four guns; four frigates, three brigs, and a schooner. Four ships of the line and five frigates were left in the Tagus; but the former were all unserviceable, except the Vasco di Gama of seventy-four guns, which was repairing, and almost ready for sea: of the frigates, two were wholly unserviceable, and the three others stood in need of a thorough repair.

The court was no sooner departed, than the French army entered Lisbon without opposition. Sir Sidney Smith, with a British squadron, accompanied the royal emigrants to Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil, where they arrived on the 19th A. D. 1808. of January, after a prosperous voyage.

A commercial arrangement was made, and a direct intercourse established between Great Britain and the Portuguese empire in America. This event forms an epoch in the history of British and Portuguese commerce. Brazil and Britain were mutually benefited at the expense of Lisbon, which was formerly the medium of their intercourse.

Before we take leave of the affairs of the year 1807 it should be mentioned, that on the 18th of April of that year the court of Vienna offered its mediation, in order to open negociations for a general peace, on a basis to be previously declared and proposed at the holding of a congress at some place in the Austrian dominions. To these pro-

posals the British government acceded, provided that the proffered mediation were accepted by the other belligerent powers. The state of affairs, however, at that period, was such as to afford but faint hopes of peace ; and nothing more was heard of this conciliatory measure till the 20th of November, when it was again brought forward by prince Stahremberg, the Austrian ambassador in London, who stated "that he had received positive orders from his court, to make to the British ministry the most earnest representations on the importance of putting an end to the contest existing between England and France, the effects of which might produce to the rest of Europe the most fatal consequences."

To this proposal Mr Canning replied, that his Britannic Majesty declared himself then, as he had always been, prepared to enter into negotiations for the conclusion of such a peace as should be consistent with his Majesty's engagements to his allies, and should provide for the tranquillity and security of Europe. On the 1st of January 1808 the Austrian ambassador stated, that he was charged by his court to propose to the British ministry to send plenipotentiaries immediately to Paris, for the purpose of treating for peace with all the powers at war with England. To this statement Mr Canning replied, that his Majesty much regretted that, after the correspondence which took place in the month of April, the present overture did not notify the acceptance of the conditions then stated as indispensable prelimi-

naries; and that it should now be proposed to England to treat with all the powers combined with France, without any reference to the allies of Great Britain. Besides, the Austrian ambassador presented no authentic document of a pacific commission from the French government, nor was any intimation given of the basis on which it was proposed to treat. His Majesty, therefore, could only repeat, that he was willing to enter into negotiations with France on a footing of perfect equality, embracing the interests of the allies of both powers; but, under such circumstances, his Majesty did not think it expedient to give the ambassador authority to speak in his Majesty's name to the government of France. Thus did this singular attempt at negotiation fail through the want of a proper commencement. The issue was, that the prince of Stahremberg left London; and, in the commencement of the A. D. 1808. year, Austria, hitherto the principal ally of Great Britain, went over to the ranks of her enemies.

The rupture between Austria and England was immediately followed by a war between Russia and Sweden. In the month of February the Russian army, under general Buxhovden, entered the Swedish province of Finland; and this invasion was shortly after followed by the reciprocal declaration of war of the courts of Stockholm and Petersburg. About the same time the king of Denmark, Christiern VII. died; and on the 18th of February the crown-prince ascended the throne, by the name of Frederick VI. The

accession of the new king was immediately followed by a declaration of war against Sweden. While these things were transacting in the north, the British and Sicilian troops were expelled from Calabria. The fort of Reggio having surrendered to the French, the British garrison of Scylla, which had been invested during the space of six weeks, was left to oppose the undivided force of general Regnier. By a train of masterly operations the British troops, on the 16th of February, succeeded in evacuating the place, under a tremendous fire of grape-shot, shells, &c. from the enemy's batteries; and so well was the affair conducted, that their loss on this occasion amounted to only eleven men killed and thirty-two wounded.

The month of February 1808 was also memorable for the subversion of the temporal power of the pope. The city of Rome was seized by the French, and, together with the whole of the ecclesiastical states, incorporated with the kingdom of Italy. His holiness in vain protested against this unprovoked aggression; all that he could obtain was a pecuniary stipend for maintaining his episcopal dignity, in conformity to the recent regulations of the Gallican church. And thus papal Rome, once so powerful, and regarded as so venerable, was overturned, not by the efforts of the enemies of her communion, but by the hands of her own undutiful sons.

The king of Sweden, engaged in a war against Russia, Denmark, and France, magnanimously prepared to repel the dangers with which he was



menaced by so powerful a combination. In his efforts he was seconded by the loyalty and zeal of his subjects ; and rarely had any nation afforded a more striking display of patriotic enthusiasm. But as the resources of his kingdom were inadequate to the contest, the British government granted to his Swedish majesty a subsidy of L.100,000 per month, and sent a squadron to the Baltic with 10,000 land forces on board, under general Moore, to co-operate as circumstances should require. The war between Russia and Sweden, however, was chiefly confined to Finland, and to trivial actions between their ships and flotillas in the Baltic ; and the hostilities carried on between Sweden and Denmark were of still less importance.

The imbecile court of Spain was at this time fast hastening to that state of internal dissension and degradation, which soon after occasioned the deposition of the royal family. On the 30th of October 1807 an extraordinary decree or manifesto was issued by the king of Spain, acquainting his subjects that his life and crown had been brought into danger by a conspiracy, of which his son was the author, whom, in consequence, he had caused to be arrested. The foundation of this singular charge was a clandestine correspondence carried on by the prince of Asturias with the French emperor, on the subject of a marriage between him and a princess of the Buonaparte family. Through the interposition of the prince of Peace (Godoy), a reconciliation was

effected ; the prince of Asturias having been induced to write penitential letters to his father and mother ; in which, however, there was no confession of any heinous or atrocious design. A treaty was soon afterwards concluded between the sovereigns of France and Spain, the object of which was a partition of the kingdom of Portugal ; but in return for the portion which was to devolve on the king of Etruria, his kingdom of Tuscany was to be ceded to Napoleon in quality of king of Italy. By a secret convention, French troops were to be admitted into Spain, and others were to be assembled at Bayonne, to assist in the conquest of Portugal. Thus a handle was given for placing Spain at the disposal of the emperor of France ; and these were the circumstances which led the court of Lisbon to emigrate to the western hemisphere.

The attention of all Europe was at this time turned towards the Peninsula ; and the designs of the emperor of France upon that quarter began daily more and more to develop themselves. Spain, once the most potent and flourishing of the European monarchies, had during two centuries been in a state of decline. A wretched system of government had almost extinguished the ancient Castilian spirit ; and the Spanish armies, which had been acknowledged superior to those of all other nations, had lost their reputation for courage and discipline. In this state of national degradation, Spain was one of the first countries of the continent which fell under the

control of revolutionary France ; and it appeared to be one of those that was least calculated for throwing off her yoke. Yet under these unfavourable circumstances, the national spirit burst forth like a meteor, and astonished the view of all Europe.

While the efforts of faction agitated the court of Madrid, and perplexed its councils, the cabinet of St Cloud was preparing for the execution of a deep laid and most unprincipled design. Under the pretext of invading Portugal and attacking Gibraltar, the armies of France, in the ostensible character of friends and allies, were marching into Spain, securing the strong places, and taking the most commanding positions. In the meanwhile an apparent reconciliation took place between the Spanish monarch and his son, as already mentioned, an event which diffused great joy throughout the whole kingdom. A perfect harmony seemed also to reign between the French and Spanish cabinets ; and the popular reports of the approaching annexation of Portugal and Gibraltar to Spain, were well calculated to allay the suspicions which the entrance of the French armies must naturally have tended to excite among the people.

In this manner, the revolutionary volcano by which the Spanish monarchy was about to be convulsed, had secretly and silently collected its powers, and in the month of March 1808 the explosion took place. It appears that his catholic majesty had formed the design of removing the

seat of government to Mexico, and that the measure was approved of by the queen and the prince of Peace, but reprobated by the prince of Asturias and his brothers, with the majority of the grandees of the court. The motives which led to this extraordinary project are enveloped in mystery ; as are indeed all the affairs of the court of Madrid, from the period of the alleged conspiracy of the prince of Asturias, till the journey of the royal family to Bayonne. It seems, however, that the design of emigrating beyond the Atlantic had originated with the prince of Peace, whose views in this affair are not fully ascertained. It is certainly not to be doubted that this minister, whose influence had long been paramount in Spain, perceived the approach of his downfall, and inspired his royal master with apprehensions for the safety of his person and government if he remained at Madrid.

No sooner had the intended emigration of the royal family transpired, than the Spanish capital presented a scene of confusion and turbulence. On the 17th of March a report was in circulation that the guards had received orders to march to Aranjuez, where the court then resided ; and the inhabitants of Madrid rushed in crowds to the road to prevent their departure. At the same time, several of the ministers and grandees who disapproved of the emigration, circulated hand-bills in the surrounding country, stating the designs of the court, and the danger to which the kingdom was exposed. The night was a scene

of tumult, and on the following day, immense crowds of people hurried to Aranjuez. The palace of the prince of Peace, though defended by his guards, was forcibly opened, and the furniture destroyed. The princess of Peace was conducted to the royal palace with all the respect due to her rank; but the prince had disappeared, and his brother, Don Diego Godoy, commandant of the life-guards, was arrested by the soldiers of his own corps.

A proclamation was immediately issued by the king, announcing the dismissal of the prince of Peace from all his employments. But this did not calm the fury of the populace. The same scenes were renewed at Madrid, where, as soon as intelligence was received of what had passed at Aranjuez, the people rushed in crowds to the palace of the prince of Peace, and to the houses of several other ministers. In all these the windows were demolished, and the furniture and ornaments destroyed, while the Swiss regiments cantoned in Madrid remained in their quarters, without daring to oppose these disorders. In the midst of this popular effervescence, the king resolved to withdraw from so tumultuous a scene; and on the 19th of March issued a royal decree, by which he abdicated the throne in favour of his son, the prince of Asturias; one of the first acts of whose sovereignty was the confiscation of the estates and property of Don Emanuel Godoy, prince of Peace, who had been discovered and made prisoner in the place of his concealment.

These events, however, were soon succeeded by a counter-revolution, more extraordinary in its nature, and in the circumstances by which it was accompanied, than any of the former changes which stamped a peculiar character on these unstable times. The duke of Berg, with the French army, had entered Madrid, and was in full possession of that capital. All the arrangements being made, the important drama was at length opened.

The two kings of Spain, Charles IV. and Ferdinand VII. formerly prince of Asturias, with the whole of the royal family, and some of the principal grandees, were allured by deceitful pretexts to Bayonne, the station which the French emperor had fixed upon for the more convenient accomplishment of his designs. This extraordinary journey may be regarded as the most mysterious part of the Spanish revolution. Without the supposition of force, or deep laid fraud, it is difficult to conceive what motives could induce either Charles or Ferdinand to put themselves in the power of the emperor of the French. Ferdinand indeed declared, that the circumstances in which he assumed the reins of government dictated the propriety of the measure. "Many provinces of the kingdom," according to his own representation, "and all the frontier garrisons, occupied by great numbers of French troops, and more than 60,000 of them stationed in the metropolis, with a variety of other data which no other person could possess—all conspired to persuade

him and his royal brothers, that, being surrounded by rocks and quicksands, they had no other remedy but to choose, among many evils, the one that would be the least productive of calamity ; and, as such, they fixed on a journey to Bayonne."

Unfortunately, however, this proved eventually to be the most imprudent step they could have taken ; and Spain was left to witness whether it were the least productive of calamity. Had Ferdinand thrown himself into the arms of his faithful subjects instead of those of a foreign despot, their subsequent conduct demonstrates, that he would have formed around his person and family an impenetrable bulwark. The rash and indiscreet step which he had taken was followed by terrible commotions throughout the country, and in Madrid, in particular, the most dreadful disorders prevailed. The French were insulted daily ; numerous assemblies were held by the populace ; and every thing indicated a dreadful explosion. At length, on the 2d. of May, a general insurrection took place. The grand-duke of Berg, commander-in-chief of the French armies in Spain, in coming from the palace, was surrounded by the populace, and, after defending himself for some time, was on the point of falling, when he was rescued by his grenadiers. The street of Alcala, and the great square, were crowded with insurgents. The grand-duke flew to his post, and a battalion of the French, with some cannon, repaired to the palace. Volleys of grape-shot, and charges of cavalry, cleared the

streets and the square ; but the insurgents continuing to fire from the houses, generals Daubrin and Guillot, with their divisions, broke open the doors, and all who were found in arms were put to the sword. A body of the insurgents, in the meanwhile, pushed forward to the arsenal, and had already broke in, when general Lafraen just arrived in time to save the arms and ammunition. The loss sustained on each side was so variously represented in the different accounts given at the time, that no credit can be attached to any of the estimates given to the public ; but there can be no doubt of its having been very considerable. In consequence of these disorders, the grand-duke of Berg was constituted lieutenant-general of the kingdom.

The crisis was now arrived when the emperor Napoleon, judging it no longer necessary to dissemble, began to unmask his designs. At first he pretended a wish to restore Charles IV. to the throne ; but perceiving Madrid to be in a ferment, and having the two kings in his power, he obliged them both to sign a formal abdication, and the infants Don Carlos and Don Antonio renounced all claim to the succession. The queen was also said to have been solicited to declare the prince of Asturias illegitimate ; an expedient, doubtless, devised with the intent of invalidating in the eyes of Spaniards his right to the crown ; and the least effect which it might have been expected to produce, would be that of dividing the public sentiment between him and his bro-



ther Don Carlos, and infusing a party spirit from which the French might derive advantage. The abdication signed by the king, and the renunciations made by the different branches of the royal family, were represented as voluntary acts; but Spain and all Europe regarded them in a very different light.

On the 25th of May, however, an imperial decree was issued, declaring the throne of Spain vacant by the abdication of the reigning family, and ordering an assembly of notables, consisting of the prelates, grandees, &c. to be held at Bayonne, for the purpose of fixing the basis of a new government. This order was communicated to the council of Castile, by the duke of Berg; and a commission was established for secularizing the lands of the church. A spirit of discontent had long pervaded the kingdom; but now the public exasperation was indescribable. Except the partisans of France, few Spaniards attended the junta at Bayonne. The proceedings in that assembly might be easily supposed to correspond with the purpose for which it was convened. And the consummation of the whole plan, which had been so long carrying into effect by every engine of intrigue, was, that the French emperor, on the 6th of June, conferred the crown of Spain on his brother, Joseph Buonaparte, who abdicated his kingdom of Naples in favour of the grand-duke of Berg, otherwise Joachim Murat, who had married the sister of Napoleon.

This consummation developed the whole system of perfidious policy which had, for more than eight months, kept Europe in anxious expectation. It was now no longer doubted, that the pretended conspiracy of the prince of Asturias was a scheme laid for his destruction ; and all the subsequent intrigues at the court of Madrid were, with too great appearance of probability, considered as the effect of French influence and agency. The measures which Napoleon had taken for ensuring the success of his plans, place the whole matter beyond suspicion or conjecture. They may be considered as the necessary preliminaries of the atrocious act which he meditated. The entrance of his armies into Spain has already been mentioned, and it may not be amiss to add, that their disposal was skilfully adapted to a design of seizing the kingdom. His primary object was to secure the entrances into Spain by the passes of the Pyrenees, that vast barrier of mountains which nature has placed between that kingdom and France. The two principal of these are the entrance from Bayonne into Biscay and Navarre, and that from Perpignan into Catalonia, by Bellegarde, La Jonquiera, Rosas, and the famous pass of Figueras. Of this road, an extent of above fifty miles lies through the gorges of the Pyrenees, in some parts of which a few armed peasants might arrest the progress of an army. To these may be added the entrance from Bayonne into Navarre, a dangerous and difficult road through continuous defiles amidst prodigious mountains.

Being masters of these important passes, the French immediately garrisoned Barcelona and Pampeluna, stations of great strength, which enabled them in some measure to command the northern parts of the kingdom, while the grand-duke of Berg, with the main body of the army, advanced forward to Madrid, the central point from which he might detach his legions to every part of the kingdom. In the mean time the French emperor was proceeding to Bayonne, to be ready to act as circumstances might require. At that place also a strong force was collected, from which detachments were occasionally sent into Biscay, Navarre, Old Castile, and Arragon. This is a retrospective view of the proceedings of the French, from the month of November 1807, when their armies first began to enter Spain; and their forces were continually augmenting, till the last act of the treacherous drama. Of their numbers it is difficult to make a correct estimate; but from comparing together the various accounts on record, it would seem that the sum-total of the French armies in Spain, prior to the date of Joseph Buonaparte's accession, could not amount to less than 100,000 men, while general Junot had at least 20,000 in Portugal.

Such was the state of affairs in Spain when the spirit of patriotism burst forth like a blaze in that kingdom. The news of the renunciations of the crown, compulsively made by their princes in favour of the emperor Napoleon, was the signal for a general insurrection. The patriotic flame

burst forth in Asturia. The brave inhabitants of that province, at the time of the Arabian invasion, a crisis not less perilous than that now under consideration, saved by their valour the remains of the Spanish monarchy; and their intrepid spirit had been transmitted to their descendants through the long succession of eleven hundred years. From the province of Asturia the insurrection spread into Gallicia, and into several districts of Leon. An assembly, convened at Oviedo, published a formal declaration of war against the French government; and having appointed the marquis of Santa Cruz generalissimó of the patriotic army, sent deputies to request the assistance of England. This request was immediately acceded to; and on the 4th of July his Majesty issued a proclamation, declaring that Great Britain was at peace with the Spanish nation.

The patriotic flame now spread rapidly in Spain, and in every quarter the inhabitants lost no time in taking up arms. The council of Seville, one of the chief provincial jurisdictions in the kingdom, rejecting the authority of the supreme council of Madrid on the ground of its being under foreign control, assumed an independent authority in the name of Ferdinand VII.; and having published an appeal to the Spanish nation for support, issued a formal declaration of war against the French emperor on the 6th of June. Provincial assemblies were formed in most of the principal towns, and depôts established in the most suitable situations. Orders were every-

where issued for raising volunteers, and every effort was made for organizing the armies. In Andalusia alone above 15,000 regular troops were collected; arms were put into the hands of 60,000 peasants; and general Castanos was appointed commander-in-chief.

The insurrection being completely organized under the direction of the different juntas, especially that of Seville, the hostile armies commenced their operations. The grand-duke of Berg began to fortify himself in the Retiero, and to send out detachments from Madrid into the different provinces. General Dupont, with about 20,000 men, was sent to secure a position at Cordova, from whence he might readily move upon Seville, Carthagena, or Cadiz. General Moncey, with upwards of 12,000 men, was detached to the provinces of Valentia and Murcia. General Le Febre, with about 18,000, was stationed in Arragon, for the purpose of obtaining possession of Saragossa, and keeping open the communication with Barcelona. The French army, in the north-western parts, consisted of between 40,000 and 50,000 men, commanded by marshal Bessieres, who had his principal station at Burgos, about 120 miles to the north of Madrid, in order to maintain a communication between the capital and Bayonne.

The great commercial city of Cadiz was among the first to shew its zeal for the patriotic cause. The French squadron, consisting of five ships of the line and one frigate, lying in the harbour,

was obliged to surrender, on the 14th of June, to the Spanish arms, after having sustained a cannonade and bombardment from the batteries, while the British fleet stationed off the port prevented its escape. This affair was followed by the defeat and almost total destruction of the French army near Almanza. General Moncey having assaulted the city of Valencia on the 28th of June, from two in the afternoon till eight, was repulsed with an almost incredible slaughter. It is not easy to find, in the history of any age or country, an instance of more determined valour and patriotism than was displayed by the Valencians on this memorable occasion. The place being destitute of regular troops, its defence rested solely on the inhabitants; and while the monks and clergy acted the part of soldiers, the women were employed in preparing cartridges, and affording every assistance of which they were capable.

General Moncey being thus repulsed, he immediately began his retreat; but on the following day he was overtaken by the patriotic forces under generals Cerbillon and Caro. A desperate engagement took place about thirty miles from Valencia, in which, according to the Spanish accounts, the whole of the French army was destroyed, except 200 or 300 of the cavalry, who made their escape. Saragossa vied with Valencia in patriotic enthusiasm. On the 1st of July, about midnight, the French made a vigorous attack on Saragossa, but the courageous conduct of the brave general Palafox, who commanded

in that place, with the valour of the troops and armed inhabitants, completely baffled their efforts. Several succeeding attempts were equally ineffectual; and on the 14th July the French once more made a desperate assault on that important place, but were again repulsed with prodigious loss. The carnage indeed must have been dreadful; for the enemy is said to have lost no fewer than 12,000 men in their attacks on Saragossa. In some of the Spanish accounts it is asserted, that the gates of the city being thrown open, the French entered without opposition, and were immediately exterminated with grape-shot in the streets and musketry from the houses; but it is not easy to credit the report of their entering so incautiously, without suspecting some stratagem.

In another quarter, however, the Spaniards were less successful. On the very day on which the French were repulsed in their grand attack on Saragossa, the patriotic general Cuesta, with an army of 14,000 men, aided by a body of peasantry, and having twenty-six pieces of cannon, was defeated, near Benevento, by general La Solles, whose force consisted of 10,000 infantry and 2,000 cavalry. The patriots, though on the whole superior in number to the French, had only 800 horse; and the battle being fought in a champaign country, their defeat may be attributable to this deficiency.

But the most important transaction took place in the province of Andalusia. The French general Dupont, finding that Seville, Carthagena,

and Cadiz, the three principal places which he was sent to cover and protect, had declared for the patriots, abandoned Cordova, and took a strong position on the heights of Andujar, near the banks of the Guadalquivir. General Castanos, at the head of the Andalusian army, immediately advanced upon this position ; and having received intelligence that a detachment of 8000 French, from the head-quarters at Madrid, was already on its march to Andujar, resolved to attack Dupont before he could receive this reinforcement. An obstinate and bloody action ensued ; but the patriots at length prevailed, and their victory was decisive. The French general, in order to save the remains of his army from total destruction, on the 20th of July surrendered himself and his troops prisoners of war. The detachment that was on the way to join him was included in the capitulation, but with this difference, that they should not be considered as prisoners, but be conveyed by sea to France.

This victory was of incalculable importance to the patriotic cause. At the commencement of the action general Dupont's army amounted to more than 12,000 effective men ; so that, in one day, not less than 20,000 of the French were either killed, made prisoners, or expelled from Spain. Had Dupont gained the victory, Seville and Cadiz would have lain at his mercy ; and the French would have intersected Spain with their garrisons in a line from Navarre, through Castile, to Andalusia. By his defeat, and that of general



Moncey in Valencia, all the southern provinces were completely cleared of the enemy.

While these important events were transpiring in the provinces, Joseph Buonaparte, the newly created sovereign, was preparing to take possession of his kingdom. On his arrival at Vittoria he issued a proclamation, announcing to the Spaniards the inestimable blessings which they were about to derive from his beneficent reign! From Vittoria he proceeded to Burgos, and from thence to Madrid. By a very singular coincidence, king Joseph made his public entrance into his capital on the 20th of July, the identical day that was signalized by the defeat and surrender of general Dupont and his army. His accession was solemnized with illuminations, and other external demonstrations of joy, such as power may always extort, but which would not have given the new monarch much pleasure, had he been apprised at the moment of what was passing in the vicinity of Andujar. The splendid illusion, however, was

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precipitately towards France, while the patriots advanced and took possession of the capital.

Finding themselves defeated in every part of Spain, the French now began to retreat from the different provinces towards Vittoria; and having left a garrison in Burgos, and seized on Bilboa, they concentrated the remainder of their forces on the banks of the Ebro. Their numbers, as well as the strength of the Spanish patriots, it has always been difficult to ascertain. Collecting their different losses in Valentia, before Saragossa, with the destruction of their army in Andalusia, and those that fell in a variety of less important actions, it has been thought that 50,000 may be regarded as a fair estimate. The successes of the Spaniards during the months of June and July were certainly important and brilliant; while the losses of the French were greater than they had ever been in so short a period of time since the accession of Napoleon to the throne of France.

About the middle of August an event took place which brought to the patriotic cause a considerable accession of strength. Several bodies of Spanish troops had been furnished by the court of Madrid as auxiliaries to the French emperor: of these, 8000 were stationed in the Danish island of Funen, and 2000 in that of Langeland. A negotiation being entered into between their commander, the marquis del Romana, and admiral Keats, then commanding a British squadron in the North Seas, in order to effect their

liberation, the Spaniards in Funen seized the vessels and small craft, the Danish troops in that island being inadequate to oppose them, and conveyed themselves to Langeland, where their countrymen had seized the battery at the mouth of the harbour. By this excellent manœuvre 10,000 Spanish troops were rescued from the power of Buonaparte, and conveyed by the British ships to Spain, where they joined their brethren in arms in maintaining the cause of their country.

The patriotic spirit by which Spain was so gloriously animated, was now communicated to Portugal. A general insurrection took place in the provinces of *Tras los Montes* and *Entre Doura e Minho*, which rapidly spread throughout the whole kingdom. After some severe contests, the French under general Loison were driven out of Oporto, and nearly cut off in their retreat towards Lisbon. The clergy, and particularly the monks of Oporto, distinguished themselves by their courage and patriotism; and partly by their exhortations, and partly by their example, encouraged the people to take up arms against their invaders, the plunderers of their churches, and the oppressors of their country. The result was, that the French were expelled from Coimbra and several other places, and general Junot was obliged to concentrate his troops in and about Lisbon.

The British government had resolved to render every possible assistance to the Spanish and Por-

tuguese patriots ; and its intentions met with the entire approbation and applause of the public. Seldom, indeed, has the British nation appeared more interested in any cause, or more unanimous in approving the measures of government, than on this occasion. A large quantity of arms had been early shipped off for the use of the patriots of Spain ; and the ministry made no delay in preparing to furnish them with more effectual succours. The most sanguine hopes were consequently now entertained, that a successful stand would be made in the Peninsula against the domineering conduct of France. But these bright and animating prospects were soon beclouded ; for a system of mismanagement was introduced which proved highly detrimental to the common cause. The different provincial juntas of Spain, acting independently of each other, without any supreme authority or centre of union, resembled so many different states confederated for the common interest, rather than one united nation ; and this precarious and intricate state of things prevented any effectual plan from being concerted between the patriots and the British government. Besides this difficulty, it appears that the Spaniards, elated with their important and brilliant successes, considered themselves to be fully adequate to the task of expelling the enemy from their country, which a little time convinced them was a fatal delusion.

Had the patriots concerted with the British government a bold and commanding plan, and as

the result of that a large British force had been poured into Spain, as near as possible to the seat of war and the source of danger, the French might, in all probability, have been completely expelled, or forced to surrender. The passes of the Pyrenees might have been secured, and the entrance of fresh armies from France might have been, at least for some time, effectually opposed. The Spaniards would have gained leisure to establish their government, and organize their military system; and the national spirit being kept buoyant by national union, the martial bands of a patriotic people would have composed a formidable phalanx. But it was unfortunate for Spain that things were quite differently managed. The patriots seemed to decline the assistance of the British forces in the north, and recommended in preference an expedition to Portugal, while a French army still occupied the banks of the Ebro, and the road from Bayonne to Madrid was left entirely open.

In compliance with the representations of the juntas, Great Britain adopted the plans which they had suggested. About the end of July a force of 14,000 men, under the command of sir Arthur Wellesley, was dispatched to Portugal, the expulsion of the French from that country being the primary object of the expedition. Having effected a landing, only a few days elapsed before they commenced military operations. The French general Laborde was strongly posted on the heights near Roleia; and as

there was reason to apprehend he might be joined by general Loison, who was then at Rio Major, the British general resolved to attack his position before the junction could take place. The army advanced from Caldas in three columns, the right being composed of the Portuguese, and the two others of British troops, led on by major-generals Ferguson and Hill, and brigadier-generals Nightingale, Crauford, and Fane. The enemy's positions were formidable, and defended with great bravery and skill; but the attack made by the British columns proved irresistible. After an obstinate engagement, the French were compelled to retire with the loss of a considerable number of men, and three pieces of cannon. The loss of the English was 479 killed, wounded, and missing. Lieutenant-colonel Lake fell gallantly in the heat of the action. In the course of the succeeding night, the French generals Loison and Laborde effected a junction at Torres Vedras, and both began their march towards Lisbon. The British army was also reinforced by a body of troops commanded by brigadier-general Anstruther, being part of a force sent from England under brigadier-general Ackland.

The moment was now approaching which was to decide the fate of the French army in Portugal, and of the Russian fleet in the Tagus. General Junot, on whom the emperor of France had conferred the title of Duc d'Abrantes, having collected all his detachments, attacked the British army, on the 21st August, in its strong position

at the village of Vimiera. The attack was made by the French in several columns, and with great impetuosity, till they were driven back by the bayonet; and being at the same time annoyed on their flank by a cannonade from the artillery placed on the heights, they were obliged, after a severe contest, to retire in confusion. A vigorous attack was also made by a considerable body of the enemy's infantry and cavalry on major-general Ferguson's brigade, who bravely repulsed the assailants, and afterwards attacked them, being supported by the brigades of brigadier-generals Nightingale, Bowes, and Ackland, while general Crauford's brigade and the Portuguese troops, in two lines, advanced along the heights on the left. General Ferguson led on his troops with a degree of courage and judgment superior to all praise, and was supported in the ablest manner by general Nightingale. At length the enemy, being every-where repulsed, was obliged to retire with the loss of about 3500 men killed, wounded, and prisoners, 13 pieces of cannon, and 23 tumbrils of ammunition. One French general, Beniere, was taken prisoner, and another, supposed to be general Thebauld, was found dead on the field of battle. The loss of the English, as stated in the returns, was 740 men killed, wounded, and missing, in which were included many valuable officers.

On the day after the battle of Vimiera, general Dalrymple landed, and took the chief command of the army. On the 30th of August a cessation

of hostilities was agreed on, and eight days afterwards a definitive convention was signed by the French and British commanders. By this treaty the French were to carry off all their arms, ammunition, artillery, carriages and horses, with their military chest, and all the plunder acquired by contributions, and to be conveyed to France in British vessels, without any restrictions in regard to future service. The Portuguese artillery, &c. with the military and naval arsenals, were to be surrendered to the British army and navy. No Portuguese was to be molested on account of the part which he had taken with the French invaders; and the British commanders engaged to prevail on the Spaniards to release all the French who were arrested in Spain, and were not *bona fide* military men. The Russian fleet in the Tagus, consisting of nine ships of the line and a frigate, surrendered to the British government as a deposit, to be given up six months after the conclusion of a peace; but the officers and seamen, above 5600 in number, were to be immediately carried to Russia.

The reasons assigned for consenting to this extraordinary convention were, the apprehended difficulty of obtaining provisions, and the importance of time, on account of the season of the year, the approach of the equinox, and the means which the enemy had of protracting his defence. These reasons, however, were far from being satisfactory either to the British or Portuguese nation. The people of England considered the



convention as a disgraceful contrast to the glorious victory of Vimiera, and the Portuguese general entered a solemn protest against several of its articles. A court of inquiry was instituted ; but on a minute investigation of the case, nothing appeared that could have the least tendency to criminate any of the generals. Whether better terms could have been obtained is not very clear ; and the critical state of Spain rendered it absolutely necessary to terminate as soon as possible the business of Portugal. It is also requisite to observe, that the convention of Cintra probably saved the city of Lisbon from destruction.

While the public attention was directed towards the affairs of Portugal and Spain, an effort at negociation with the British government was made by the emperor of France. The basis, however, was totally inadmissible ; it required the exclusion of the supreme government of Spain acting in the name of Ferdinand VII. from the negociation. His Britannic Majesty reprobated the idea of abandoning the interests of the Spanish nation. When a few notes had passed, the negociation broke off, as might have been expected. In the councils, in the senate, and throughout the kingdom, there was only one sentiment on the subject ; and his Majesty's decisive rejection of the delusive proposal met with universal approbation.

The British army having consumed more than two months in Lisbon, on the 26th of October commenced its march for Spain, under the command of sir John Moore, and immediately pro-

ceeded to Salamanca. Sir David Baird had, on the 13th of October, landed a strong body of troops at Corunna, and, after many delays and innumerable difficulties, on the 19th of November arrived at Astorga. In the mean while, the emperor of France had personally entered Spain, with a view of conducting the operations of the war. The patriotic armies under generals Belvidere, Blake, and Castanos, being successively defeated at Burgos, Espinosa, and Tudela, the French army forced the pass of Somma Sierra, and on the 2d of December advanced to Madrid. That city now displayed a horrible scene of confusion. The constituted authorities had no influence. The city was in the power of an ungovernable rabble, consisting in part of strangers from the country; and the opulent inhabitants dreaded the alternative of seeing all their property pillaged, either by a victorious enemy or by a licentious mob.

The populace being averse to any measures of conciliation, Napoleon gave orders for an assault on the suburbs, and during the night his troops made themselves masters of the Retiero and other commanding positions. An unruly populace was ill adapted to a vigorous defence. The most turbulent made their escape in the night; and on the 4th of December Madrid surrendered without further opposition. Don T. Morla and the prince of Castel Franco, who had the chief management of affairs, however, did not escape the suspicion of having treasonably delivered up the

city. The French emperor having settled the affairs of the capital, hastened to endeavour to cut off the retreat of the English army. For this purpose he put his different divisions in motion, under the dukes of Dalmatia, Abrantes, Dantzic, and Treviso, and on the 18th of December he himself departed from Madrid, with an army of 32,000 infantry and 8,000 cavalry. But the passage of the mountains of Guadarama proved extremely difficult, being covered with a deep snow ; and the incessant rains and overflowing torrents occasioned a delay of two days in his march.

In the mean time, the British general, being apprised of the surrender of Madrid, meditated a junction with the marquis Romana, with the view of making an attack on the duke of Dalmatia. He therefore marched to Majorga, where he was joined by general Baird with the troops from Corunna. The whole British army, which was now found to consist of 23,000 infantry and upwards of 2,000 cavalry, besides some small detachments, advanced to Sahagan. But general Moore was no sooner arrived at his station than he received intelligence of the movements of the enemy ; and judging it impossible to make an effectual resistance against the formidable force that was coming against him, on the 24th of December he commenced his precipitate retreat through Galicia. The emperor Napoleon made forced marches as far as Astorga ; but finding that his expected prey had eluded his grasp, he

resigned into the hands of the dukes of Dalmatia and Abrantes the further operations against the English army.

The retreat of the British army was attended by the disasters inseparable from the rapidity with which it was necessarily conducted in the middle of winter, and by roads almost impassable. Great numbers of men, who were unable to keep up with the rest of the army, were left on the line of march, and many dropped down exhausted with fatigue. Many of their horses were also left behind; and no less than 1400 were killed to prevent them from falling into the hands of the enemy. General Anstruther died through excessive fatigue; and some accounts state the loss of the British army during the retreat at 7,000 men! The English were constantly harassed by the enemy's cavalry, which made frequent attacks on their rear, though they were always repulsed with considerable loss. The valour and perseverance of the troops were never more conspicuous than on this memorable occasion, amidst so many disadvantages, and retreating before a force greatly superior. At length, after fourteen days of precipitate and harassing marches, the army reached Corunna on the 11th of January 1809; and had the transports been ready, might have embarked without further difficulty or loss. But these had been sent to Vigo, to which place the British general had first intended to retreat; and it was not till the 13th that the first division of transports arrived at Corunna.

On the 12th of January the advanced guard of the enemy arrived at Betanzos, within twelve miles of that place, and their main body came up on the following day. On the 14th and 15th the rest of the transports arrived, and part of the troops were embarked. The French, in the meanwhile, had brought up their infantry in great force; and general Moore, perceiving that he should be forced to risk an action, was obliged to suspend the embarkation. On the 15th the enemy began to harass the English with continual skirmishes, while he made his dispositions for a more serious attack. The French had occupied an advantageous position; and their object was, by an impetuous attack on the right wing, to cut off the British army from the point of embarkation. Aware of their design, general Moore took the necessary precaution to draw up his army under the walls of Corunna. In the forenoon of the next day the duke of Dalmatia reconnoitred the English army, and on the 16th of January, about 2 P. M. he gave orders for the attack, which was made with the most tremendous impetuosity. The British troops stood like a wall, and with calm intrepidity received and repulsed the repeated attacks of the enemy. A vigorous charge with the bayonet decided the affair, and compelled the enemy to retreat to the heights. In the beginning of the action, sir David Baird, an officer justly distinguished by his bravery and eminent services in the cause of his country, received a wound in the arm, which rendered

amputation immediately necessary. Some time after, general Moore was wounded by a shot in the shoulder, of which he died before midnight. He fell in the flower of his age, but he fell crowned with laurels. Like Wolfe, Abercrombie, and Nelson, he expired in the arms of victory; and, like theirs, his name and memory will ever be dear to his country. Several other officers of distinguished rank and merit fell on that memorable day. In this unfortunate expedition, the British army lost all its ammunition and magazines, and five or six thousand men. Even a large portion of the military chest, to the amount of 120,000 dollars, was thrown from a precipice, that it might not become a prey to the enemy. The action ended about five in the evening. After general Moore had received the wound which terminated his glorious career, the command of the British troops devolved on general Hope, who completed the victory, and with great ability directed the embarkation, which recommenced about ten o'clock on the evening of the battle, and before the morning of the 18th was completely effected, with a celerity of which there are few examples. Corunna capitulated soon after the departure of the army, and the French also obtained possession of Ferrol, Bilboa, St Andero, and all the most important places on the northern coast of Spain.

Having pursued the narrative of the peninsular war to this unfortunate period of its result, we must now suspend the further detail of events

in that quarter, until we have glanced at the proceedings in the British senate.

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## CHAPTER V.

1808—1810.

THE parliament of the United Kingdom was opened on the 31st of January 1808, by commission; the king, from the accumulated infirmities of age, being wholly unable to exercise the royal functions in person. The speech delivered in his name was of unusual length. It alluded to the secret articles of the treaty of Tilsit, as hostile to Great Britain, though this had been positively denied by the emperor Alexander, who had, on the contrary, eagerly offered his amicable mediation. Upon the whole, it was but too apparent that Austria, Russia, Prussia, Denmark, and Turkey, were added to the catalogue of his Majesty's former enemies, France, Spain, Italy, and Holland. The only consolation held out was, "that the king of Sweden had resisted every attempt to induce him to abandon his alliance with Great Britain." And the lords commissioners were especially commanded to say, in the name of his Majesty, that if ever there was a just and national war, it is that which his Majesty was now compelled to prosecute.

The expedition to Denmark was the leading topic of debate in both houses of parliament. Mr Ponsonby, in a motion very methodically arranged, proposed to take a view of the subject in the three distinct relations of Denmark, Russia, and France. His first object was to ascertain the disposition of the Danish government towards this country for some time previous to the attack on Copenhagen ; secondly, whether, immediately after the treaty of Tilsit, Russia had entirely abandoned herself to the counsels of France ; and thirdly, what means France possessed to compel Denmark to depart from her system of neutrality, and especially how far the former power could have succeeded in any attempts to annoy us in the Baltic.

With a view to the elucidation of these points, Mr Ponsonby moved for certain documents to be laid before the house, but the motion was negatived by 253 votes against 108 ; the proof on either part was therefore left deficient. It was however admitted, that there was no evidence of the hostile intention of Denmark towards Great Britain before the aggression ; and all that the ministers of the crown laboured to establish on that head was, that it was probable, from past experience, that Denmark would be induced by inclination, or compelled by force, to join the league against us. With respect to Russia, it was contended by the members of opposition, that there was no reason to suppose that any secret articles were contained in the treaty of Tilsit,



affecting the rights or interests of this country. The power of France to oblige the Danish court to become her instrument, was very differently regarded by the disputants on the opposite sides. Her ability to reduce by her arms all the continental territory of Denmark was readily admitted; but some competent judges were of opinion, that it would have been extremely difficult for the French to have landed on the Danish isles in the face of their fleet.

The secretary of war, however, read an extract from some official papers, to shew that at one period some steps had been taken by the Danish government for the purpose of enabling their fleet to oppose such an attempt; but that they had been abandoned, and that, when the danger came, it was utterly unprepared for resistance. The moral attack and defence of the measure lay in a narrow compass. It was manifestly impossible to justify such a violation of all the laws subsisting between civilized nations, on any other ground than that of the existence of a strong necessity of self-protection; and the degree of this necessity was the point at issue. There were some, indeed, who held, that it would have been better to encounter any hazard arising from the possession of the Danish fleet by our enemies, than to have stained our national character by a deed of lawless violence; but it may be presumed, from the great majorities by which the ministers were supported, that the general feeling led to a different conclusion; and the voice of the public

appears to have coincided with that of parliament on the occasion.

After a short interval, lord Sidmouth moved for an address to the king, praying that the Danish fleet might be kept in such a state as not to preclude the possibility of restoring it, should circumstances occur under which it might be expedient so to do. This was powerfully supported by lord Grenville, who wished to demonstrate to all Europe, by this act of justice and retribution, that the people of this country were still alive to a sense of honour, and of that proud national feeling which had always distinguished them. It was, however, negatived by 105 votes to 51. A similar motion in the house of commons by lord Folkestone had the same issue: On the 29th of February Mr Whitbread moved three resolutions—the first censuring the refusal of the mediation of Russia; the second, that of Austria; and the third declaring, that, “in the present circumstances of the war, there was nothing to preclude negociation.” In all of these he was supported by Mr Sheridan, who declared them to be “such as ought to be passed by that house, as a guide and warning to ministers, who had suffered repeated opportunities to pass by unimproved, and would serve to satisfy the country that the house was disposed to peace when fairly and honourably attainable.” The resolutions were, nevertheless, successively negatived by overwhelming majorities.

The orders in council which had been issued subsequently to Napoleon's decree of blockade, occupied the attention of both houses for some time during this session. The subject was introduced by the chancellor of the exchequer on the 5th of February, when he moved that these orders should be referred to the committee of ways and means. On the part of opposition it was contended, that this decree not having been acted upon, it was contrary both to justice and policy to oppose it by measures which violated both the law of nations and the municipal law of this country. On the other side it was maintained, that we had a complete right to retaliate upon the enemy his own measures; that if he declared we should have no trade, we had a right to declare that he should have none; and if he declared British manufactures and colonial produce good prize, we had a right to do the same with regard to French. It was moreover contended, with regard to neutrals, that if they acquiesced in restrictions imposed by one belligerent, the other belligerent was warranted in considering such neutrals as a party to those restrictions.

The arguments used with respect to the right amounted, on the whole, to this principle—That

by power on one side, justifies  
by power on the other side;  
of fact, the law of nations,  
e court to enforce it, is the law

With respect to the policy of  
great variety of argument was

employed on each side, during the debates on a bill brought in by the chancellor of the exchequer, for making valid the orders of council, which, on the 25th of March, finally passed both houses. It was accompanied by a bill for commercial intercourse with America, which was intended to afford time for making arrangements with that country, and, in the interim, continuing an act without which trade could not be carried on to any of the British ports in American vessels.

At this period of the session lord Folkestone moved, that the papers relating to the transactions between the marquis Wellesley and the nabob of Oude should be taken into consideration. Though this question had now been pending in three parliaments, many of the present members could scarcely have had time to peruse with proper attention so voluminous a mass of materials. It was therefore proposed by Mr Creevey, whose knowledge of Indian affairs was universally admitted, to refer these papers to a committee to digest and make their report. But sir Arthur Wellesley pressing, on the part of the marquis, for a speedy dismissal, an adjournment of only fifteen days took place. Accordingly, on the 9th of March, lord Folkestone, in a speech which commanded great attention, arraigned with much severity the conduct of the marquis in his transactions with the nabob of Oude; and concluded by moving a series of resolutions in conformity to the representation he had given of his

conduct. The marquis was defended in an elaborate reply by sir John Anstruther, who had held a high judicial office in India. After a long and interesting debate, the previous question was put on all the resolutions except the last ; in lieu of which sir John Anstruther moved, that " the marquis Wellesley, in his proceedings in the province of Oude, was actuated by an ardent zeal for the public service, and by an anxious desire to provide more effectually for the safety and prosperity of the British empire in India." This was carried by 180 to 29 voices ; and thus, in all probability, was the house relieved from the toil and trouble of similar investigations in future.

On the 11th of April Mr Spencer Percival brought forward his project of finance for the year. The war taxes he estimated at L.20,000,000, and he proposed a loan of L.8,000,000 in addition to L.4,000,000 already funded of exchequer bills. Additional taxes were also voted to the amount of L.300,000. The supplies required were L.43,000,000 for England, and L.5,500,000 for Ireland. A new financial plan introduced by him, was that of enabling the holders of three per cent stock to transfer their stock to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, and to receive equivalent annuities in its stead. Certain resolutions were moved to this effect, which subsequently passed into law.

The house of commons having on the 8th of March gone into a committee on the mutiny bill, lord Castlereagh moved for the introduction of a

clause to permit men to enlist for life. The reasons which he assigned for this alteration of Mr Wyndham's plan of limited service were, the inconvenience that would accrue from the simultaneous discharge of all those who had enlisted for a limited term, and the burden that must fall on the country from the accumulated number of pensions on the other plan. Mr Wyndham considered such a clause as subversive of the system which had been approved by parliament after long investigation, and adduced facts to shew that the system had been efficacious in its purpose of increasing the number of recruits. The clause, however, after undergoing considerable discussion, was carried in both houses. A bill for establishing a local militia of 200,000 men was also introduced by lord Castlereagh in April, and passed into a law. The men were to be trained for twenty-eight days annually, and the principle of the bill was extended to Scotland.

A measure for the amelioration of the criminal law of England, by lessening the number of capital punishments, was brought forward this session by sir Samuel Romilly, in a motion for repealing so much of an act of queen Elizabeth as takes away the benefit of clergy from such as privately steal from the persons of others. To the bill brought in for this purpose the solicitor-general proposed a clause declaring, that stealing without a person's knowledge, whether privily from the person or not, in contradistinction from robbery, should be punished by transportation for life, or

for a shorter period, not less than seven years, at the discretion of the judge, or in favourable cases by imprisonment; and with this amendment the bill passed. On the 4th of July parliament was prorogued by commission.

From this rapid glance at the proceedings in the British senate, we shall now pass on to notice a few important occurrences which transpired on the continent of Europe during this A.D. 1808. year, and which, consequently, would not admit of being incorporated into the history of Spanish affairs detailed in the preceding chapter.

The emperor of France, accustomed to see every thing submit to his will, and victory everywhere attending his eagles, was equally surprised and indignant at the opposition of the Spaniards, whom he determined in person to chastise for their insolence in not allowing him to impose a king upon them. The first point to be secured, however, was the consolidation of his power in Germany and the north, which had been established by the treaty of Tilsit; and for that purpose, before he set out for Spain, he planned an interview with the emperor of Russia, over whose mind he flattered himself that he had acquired a lasting ascendancy. The meeting took place at Erfurt on the 27th of September, each sovereign being accompanied by a numerous and splendid suite. As it was the obvious purpose of Napoleon to place matters upon such footing that he could withdraw his troops from Germany, and

employ them in the Peninsula, he rendered the Russian monarch the mediator of a negociation, by which he engaged to evacuate the Prussian territory as soon as the contributions should be paid, which he reduced to one-third of their amount; and he wrote, with his own hand, an obliging letter to the queen of Prussia.

A proposal of peace to the English government, of which a brief mention was made in the former chapter, was another result of this conference. It is probable, however, that nothing more on the part of Napoleon was intended than a profession of pacific inclinations, since he refused to regard the Spaniards in any other light than as insurgents, and would not admit them as a party to any negotiations. On his return from Erfurt he made a speech to the legislative body, in which he declared, that the emperor of Russia and he were unchangeably united both for peace and war; that he was satisfied with the sentiments of the confederacy of the Rhine and the people of Italy; and that he was now going to place himself at the head of his army, to crown his brother in Madrid, and plant his eagles on the fortresses of Portugal. He then ordered a levy of 100,000 conscripts; and having put his veteran troops in motion for Spain, proceeded to Bayonne, as formerly mentioned; and thence to the head-quarters of the French army at Vittoria. The only other part of Europe in which war-like operations were carrying on this year, was Sweden. The monarch of that country, with



some qualities of heroism, was greatly deficient in that soundness of mind which was necessary for the management of public affairs, and acted more from the impulse of passion than the deductions of reason. One of the least potentates of Europe in point of physical strength and national resources, he wished to assume the political rank of one of the greatest. His firm resolution of adhering to his engagements with England was honourable to his principles, but it involved his crown and country in imminent danger. Having placed himself in a state of hostility with the other northern powers, a Russian army entered Finland without a declaration of war, which occasioned the arrest of the ambassador of that court at Stockholm. The Swedish troops were obliged to retreat before an enemy so much superior in force; and war was openly declared against Sweden, by Russia, Prussia, and Denmark. On the 8th of February 1808, a convention was signed, by which England agreed to advance to her ally the sum of L. 1,200,000 by monthly instalments. A British squadron also joined the Swedish ships in guarding the passage of the Sound; and a body of troops was in readiness for affording assistance by land. The Russians in the month of March took possession of Abo, the capital of Finland, and declared its annexation to the Russian empire; on which the king of Sweden suddenly abandoned the farther defence of that province, and undertook the invasion of Norway. The succour

from England, consisting of 10,000 men under sir John Moore, arrived at Gottenburg on the 17th of May, when that general proceeded to Stockholm to concert measures of co-operation with the Swedish troops. He there found that the king, although his means were very insufficient even for defence, was bent upon conquest; and refusing to concur in some of his extravagant plans, as being contrary to his orders, the monarch's resentment was so much excited that he was obliged to escape in disguise, and brought back his troops without landing them.

The Russians having gained possession of Abo, now directed all their force by sea and land against the fortress of Sweaborg, the Gibraltar of the north; and so feeble was the defence that was made of it, that it induced a suspicion of treachery. The naval force in the harbour was included in the capitulation, under the singular condition of being restored to Sweden when England should restore the fleet of Denmark! The Russians also made descents on the islands of Gothland and Aland. An engagement between the flotillas of the two powers ended to the disadvantage of the Swedes. In Finland an armistice was concluded on the 27th of September, which consigned the greatest part of the province to the possession of Russia. The king of Sweden on this gave vent to his anger and mortification, and broke his guards, to the number of 4000, on account of their behaviour; and thus threw disgrace on many of the first families in

the kingdom. A convention was afterwards entered into, by which Finland was continued in occupation of the Russians, on condition of the unmolested retreat of the remaining Swedish troops.

The emperor of France, as if to manifest his contempt of all Europe, at this time gave an extraordinary proof of confidence in the plenitude of his power. By a decree of the senate, the fortresses of Kehl, Wesel, Cassel (the eastern suburb of Mentz), all on the right bank of the Rhine, and Flushing at the mouth of the Scheldt, were annexed to the French empire. And as though this were not sufficient to mark his defiance of all the potentates whom he had subdued or gained over to his interests, in the month of May he published a decree in the following words:—"Whereas the temporal sovereign of Rome has refused to make war against England, and the interest of the two kingdoms of Italy and of Naples ought not to be intercepted by a hostile power; and whereas the donation of Charlemagne, *our illustrious predecessor*, of the countries which form the Holy See, was for the good of Christianity, and not for that of the enemies of our holy religion;—we therefore decree, that the duchies of Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, and Camerino, be for ever united to the kingdom of Italy; to which kingdom, all cardinal prelates, &c. natives of these districts, are commanded to return by the 5th of June, on pain of confiscation of goods." This singular product of undisguised

despotism called forth a declaration from the pope, in which he calmly but forcibly maintained the rights of his see, and solemnly protested against the intended spoliation. It did not, however, prevent the entry of a French army, which took possession of all the strong places in the ecclesiastical territories. And this was followed by the annexation of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany to the French empire, under the appellation of the departments of the Taro, the Arno, &c. so that the kingdom of Italy was on every side guarded by the French empire.

The papal protest was, after the lapse of some months, enforced by a sentence of excommunication against the authors and instruments of the act of spoliation. This was productive of new violence on the part of the emperor of France. In the following year the pope was brought as a captive to Avignon; a provisional government was established in the ecclesiastical states; the inquisition was abolished; many temporal and spiritual abuses were abrogated; and various civil and judicial reforms introduced. Rome itself, wonderfully improved and embellished in the hands of Napoleon, was declared the second city of the empire, and empowered to send seven members to the legislative body; and a deputation arriving from thence at Paris, presented an address of homage, to which he replied in the language of an emperor of the west. The Neapolitan diadem, vacated by Joseph Buonaparte, was conferred on marshal Murat, duke of Berg,

who took the title of Joachim I. The succession to the kingdom of Italy was also at this time settled on Eugene Beauharnois, the viceroy, stepson of Napoleon, whose beneficent government had made him almost adored in Lombardy.

A new revolution took place this summer in the changeful and barbarous empire of Turkey. Mustapha Bairacter, pasha of Rudshuck, a man of an enterprising character, and of more enlightened views than usual among the Turks, determined, notwithstanding the opposition among the janisaries, to introduce new regulations in the military system. Arriving at Constantinople with a body of troops on whom he could rely, he deposed all the new ministers of Sultan Mustapha, put to death the commandant of the castles of the Dardanelles and the aga of the janisaries, and on the 28th of July caused the dethroned Selim to be declared emperor. Mustapha, however, prevented this restoration by causing his uncle Selim to be strangled, and exposing his dead body in the seraglio. This bloody deed only accelerated his own downfall. Mustapha was deposed, and his younger brother, Mahomet, was raised to the throne in his stead, who declared Bairacter grand vizier. During the time in which he held the power, he acted with vigour in remodelling the army and navy, and introducing various important improvements. But, like his predecessor in this career, he fell a sacrifice to the established system. On the 15th of November the janisaries, who had massacred the principal

officers of the regulated troops, scaled the walls of the seraglio, when Bairacter, having first strangled the deposed Mustapha, blew himself up in his own palace with gunpowder, previously provided against such an event.

The naval occurrences of the year 1808 were not of much importance; but in such as occurred the British ships maintained their usual maritime superiority. In March, a Danish man-of-war, mounting seventy-four guns, was taken and burnt by two English ships on the coast of Zealand. In the same month a severe action took place off Ceylon, between the *San Fiorenzo*, an English frigate, and the French frigate *Piedmontaise* of fifty guns, in which the latter was captured with a great loss of men. The brave captain Hardinge fell on the side of the victors. A Russian fleet having appeared in the Baltic, sir Samuel Hood, with two ships of the line, made a junction with the Swedes, and proceeded on the 25th of August in quest of the enemy, who had thirteen sail of the line besides frigates. The Russians took to flight, but were pursued by the combined fleets, who, coming up with them, shot ahead, and brought the sternmost Russian ship to action. The Russian admiral bore down with all his force to rescue her, but was unable to prevent her destruction by the English, as she struck on a shoal.

An extraordinary instance of the naval inferiority of the Turks was shewn by an engagement in the Archipelago on the 5th July. The Sea-

horse English frigate, descrying off the island of Scopelo a Turkish ship of fifty-two guns, a corvette of twenty-four guns, and a galley, by dint of manœuvring brought the corvette first to action, and in a short time reduced her to a wreck. She then engaged in close fight with the large ship, and after an obstinate resistance compelled her to strike, with the loss of 360 men killed and wounded, that of the Seahorse being only five killed and ten wounded.

Mr Rose, who had been sent to the United States for the purpose of restoring the relations of amity between the two countries, returned without success. The embargo was continued by the Americans throughout the year, though not without great dissatisfaction, especially in the northern States. At the meeting of congress in November, the president, in a message, acquainted them with the failure of his negotiations with the French and English courts to obtain a revocation of their measures to the injury of neutral commerce. With respect to the latter, he said, that an offer was made of taking off the embargo, as far as concerned the trade to Great Britain, on condition of the repeal of the orders of council, but that it was not accepted.

In the month of August this year arrived in England Louis XVIII., nominal king of France, with the queen and the daughter of the late king, married to the duke d'Angoulême; but only acknowledged here under the title of the count de Lisle. A liberal provision was, nevertheless,

made for himself and his household ; and in the delightful seclusion of Hartwell, near Aylesbury, he passed almost the only tranquil and peaceful years he had known, much respected for his virtues in private life, for which he was better qualified than for the government of a great and divided kingdom.

The British parliament was convened on the 19th of January, and the session was opened, as usual, by commission. A. D. 1809.

The speech adverted to the late overture for peace from Erfurt ; in relation to which his Majesty expressed his persuasion, that the two houses would participate in the feelings expressed in his declaration. He informed them that his engagements with Spain were reduced into the form of a treaty of alliance. The peculiar claim of the king of Sweden to his Majesty's support was insisted on ; and the most vigorous prosecution of the war earnestly recommended.

Some very animated debates ensued on this occasion in both houses of parliament. The assistance afforded to Sweden, the expedition to Portugal, the convention of Cintra, the disasters in Spain, and the American embargo, which had now been confirmed by a non-intercourse bill passed in the new congress, prohibiting the entrance of the ports of the United States to all vessels belonging to Great Britain or France, or to any of the countries under their influence, and adhering either to the Berlin decree or the British orders in council ;—all these topics were brought



forward, and furnished materials for debate and discussion.

The debates on the affairs of Portugal and Spain took the precedence in point of curiosity and interest. Earls St Vincent, Grenville, and Moira, reprobated the idea of sending an army to Portugal when Spain was at stake. "In Spain," said lord Moira, "must be fought the battle of British independence. The fall of Spain must be the fall of this country. Had the British government sent out in due time a proper person to concert measures with the Spanish people, and amicably to explain the motives upon which the British nation wished to act towards Spain, the Spaniards would never have refused to accept the aid of troops from us." Lord Grenville asserted, that "it was only in the north of Spain, or on the borders of the Pyrenees, that a British force could have acted with effect. After the French had been driven from Madrid, and had retired to the frontiers of Spain, if a British force had been promptly sent to the north of Spain before the French had received reinforcements, they perhaps might have been driven through the Pyrenees, those passes forced, and the keys of their country put into the hands of the Spaniards." Lord St Vincent condemned the plan of debarking troops in the extremity of the south, which were designed to act in the north. In the commons, Mr Ponsonby adopted the same train of reasoning; but they were ably answered by lords

Hawkesbury and Castlereagh, and by Mr secretary Canning.

Lord Hawkesbury declared, that the sending of a British force to Portugal in preference to Spain, was a measure adopted in compliance with the representations of the Spanish juntas. Mr Canning endeavoured to justify the principles on which his Majesty's ministers had acted, by developing the state of Spain at the commencement of the grand insurrection. "When the whole Spanish nation," said he, "rose unanimously, and with a concert almost miraculous, the consequence was, the sudden creation of various local authorities, acknowledging no head; jealous, watchful, and extremely suspicious of any attempt on the part of one to obtain ascendancy over the others." The supreme central junta was not erected till the last week in September. To these circumstances Mr Canning ascribed the direction of the expedition, and the delay of the advance of the British army from Portugal.

Of the subsequent copious debates which arose on motions for thanks to the officers and troops engaged in Portugal, and for resolutions and inquiries concerning the campaigns in Spain and Portugal, the plan of this work does not admit of any minute detail. It may, however, be mentioned, that lord Henry Petty's motion in the house of commons, for resolutions directly censuring the convention of Cintra, and attributing the causes which led to them to the misconduct

of ministers, was defeated by no greater a majority than 203 to 158 ; and also that Mr Ponsonby's motion, for an inquiry into the conduct of the late campaign in Spain, was negatived by 220 to 127 votes.

No inconsiderable portion of the present session was occupied in a very extraordinary investigation. So early as the 27th of January, colonel Wardle, an officer of militia, asserted the existence of a system of abuse in the military department, in which the commander-in-chief was deeply implicated. The substance of the charge was, that an intriguing female, whose name was Mary Anne Clarke, who during several years had been a favourite with his royal highness the duke of York, but then discarded, had carried on a traffic in commissions, not only with the knowledge, but also the participation of the Duke ; and he concluded with moving for a committee of inquiry.

The introduction of the subject gave rise to a considerable discussion ; and after various observations had been offered by different members, the chancellor of the exchequer, to the surprise and regret of the more considerate members, proposed that the inquiry should take place in a committee of the whole house ; and it was accordingly carried. This ill-judged measure gave occasion to some of the most indecent scenes ever witnessed in that assembly. The daring evidence of Mrs Clarke was corroborated from various quarters, and fully proved the fact of her own profligate traffic. That she had really received

sums of money for her interest in obtaining promotions and other appointments, was proved beyond all doubt ; but the duke's knowledge of her transactions, and participation in her gains, were circumstances, the proof of which depended chiefly on the testimony of Mrs Clarke herself.

The defenders of his royal highness were for the most part members of the administration and whereas on the other side were independent members, who oppositionists. Testimonies, however, were given by persons to the excellence of conduct in his high office ; as which the military system his management. Nor was y of the instances adduced, bestowed on the undeserving, y consideration had been ac- the commander-in-chief. On the 23d of February his royal highness addressed a letter to the speaker of the house of commons, in which he not only denied all personal participation, but the slightest knowledge of these abuses. " But," added his royal highness, " if upon such evidence as has been adduced against me, the house of commons can think my innocence questionable, I claim of their justice that I shall not be condemned without trial, nor be deprived of the benefit and protection which is afforded to every British subject, by those sanctions

under which alone evidence is received in the ordinary administration of the law."

It now became necessary to put an end to the present anomalous proceedings, or to frame regular articles of impeachment. With a view to the first alternative, Mr Percival, on the 17th of March, moved a resolution, "that the house having examined the evidence, and having found that personal corruption, and connivance at corruption, had been imputed to the duke of York, were of opinion that the imputation was wholly unfounded." This was carried by 278 against 196 voices. But though the general conduct of the duke as commander-in-chief was not denied to be highly meritorious, the current of national opinion was so adverse, and the public indignation at the discoveries which had transpired so vehement, and so plainly indicated in the numerous addresses presented to colonel Wardle, that his royal highness found it expedient to resign his high office, which was transferred to sir David Dundas. On the notice of this resignation, a final resolve passed, "that the house did not think it necessary to proceed farther on the minutes of evidence taken before the committee;" which was carried by a large majority. Thus was terminated a discussion, which, whatever may be thought of its origin, was rendered important in its progress by the great interest taken in it throughout the country, and the freedom of debate with which it was conducted; and if its issue be regarded as a proof of a preponderating influence in parliament, it

also furnishes a demonstrative proof, that the most elevated rank cannot, under the British constitution, shelter abuses from detection, or protect those concerned in them from the effects of the public displeasure.

During this ferment of the public mind, a charge of corruption, though of a very different complexion, was brought against lord Castlereagh. While that nobleman presided at the India board, he had been complimented by the Company with the disposal of a *writership*. Desirous of a seat in parliament for a friend, he was recommended to a "trafficking broker," who pretended to be able to obtain one as an equivalent for the writership. With this man, and for this purpose, lord Castlereagh most imprudently assented to an interview. But the writership, estimated by good judges at 3000 guineas, being a certainty, and the seat in reversion a great uncertainty, the treaty broke off. Though trafficking for seats in parliament was a practice of common occurrence, it was confessedly unconstitutional; and the requisite attention to decorum would not permit any individual occupying a high and responsible office to be personally concerned in any such transaction. Lord Castlereagh, in his defence, "disclaimed being actuated by any corrupt motive, or the exertion of any official influence, though he much regretted that he had inadvertently been led to converse on such a subject with such a man as Reding; and said, that if the house deemed the action, or rather the intention, which was all that the accusation

amounted to, unparliamentary, he should bow to any censure which he might be thought to deserve."

A resolution of censure was accordingly moved by lord Archibald Hamilton on the 25th April, which gave rise to a long debate. But this being an offence that was only contemplated, and attended with palliating circumstances, the chancellor of the exchequer moved the order of the day; in voting for which, Mr Canning took occasion to remark, "that he would by no means be understood thereby to pronounce the case submitted to them as not of very serious importance." This opinion having apparently more weight than the vote, the order of the day was negatived, and Mr Canning himself moved, "that the house, on considering the whole of the case, saw no necessity for a criminating resolution," which was carried by a majority of 214 to 167 voices.

Soon after this Mr Curwen obtained leave to bring in a bill for securing the independence and purity of parliament, by preventing the obtaining seats by improper means, and also to extend the laws against bribery. In the progress of this bill, the speaker of the house of commons made an animated appeal in its favour. "The question," said this distinguished personage, "is no less than this: whether seats in this house shall henceforth be publicly saleable? A *proposition*, at the sound of which our ancestors would have startled with indignation; but a *practice*, which in these days, and within these walls, in utter oblivion of every

former maxim and feeling of parliament, has been avowed and justified. If we forbear to reprobate this traffic, we give it legality and sanction. That it is a parliamentary offence, every page of our history, our statutes, and our journals, bear evidence." The bill, after various modifications, passed by a small majority.

On the 12th of May the chancellor of the exchequer laid before the house of commons his budget for the year. The amount of supplies for Great Britain and Ireland was stated at L.53,862,000, and among the ways and means were, war-taxes L.19,000,000, and a loan of L.11,000,000 for Great Britain. The loan was contracted for at a lower rate of interest than money had ever before been borrowed on the public account; a consequence, probably, of the stagnation of foreign trade. A lottery being part of the ways and means, strong objections were made to so pernicious a mode of raising money; and the house dividing upon it, there appeared for lotteries 90, against them 36. On the 21st of June the session of parliament closed.

Soon after the battle of Corunna, the emperor Napoleon set out on his return to France. In the month of March, orders were issued for the French armies to recross the Rhine. The troops of Austria were at the same time assembled under the archduke Charles as commander-in-chief. On the side of Italy, the viceroy Eugene Beauharnois collected a numerous army. Early in April, the Austrians having



passed the Inn near Scharding, the king of Bavaria quitted his capital, and retired to Augsburg. On the 18th Napoleon arrived at Ingolstadt. The first considerable action took place at Ebensburg, where the archduke Louis was surprised, and his division of troops dispersed or destroyed.

In the mean time, the grand army under the archduke Charles took possession of Ratisbon, making the French garrison prisoners of war. On the 22d of April the two armies met at Eckmühl. The battle commenced at two in the afternoon, and was long and obstinate; but towards evening the Austrians were driven from their positions in confusion, the darkness alone rescuing them from ruin. The vanquished attempted to take refuge under the walls of Ratisbon, but the city was forced with great slaughter, and the Austrians retreated with precipitation to the left bank of the Danube. Napoleon following the course of that river, advanced rapidly to Vienna; into which capital, on the 10th of May, he once more entered as conqueror, the emperor Francis having previously retired to Moravia. From Vienna Napoleon issued a decree, "inviting the Hungarians to shake off for ever the yoke of the house of Austria; assuring them, that under the sanction of France they may preserve their territory inviolate, and either regain their ancient liberty or modify it according to their judgment." But from the auspicious era of the accession of Maria Theresa, the policy of Austria respecting Hungary had entirely changed, and this call upon them produced no effect.

Having reassembled his scattered troops, the archduke Charles now proceeded with forced marches towards Vienna, in the hope of saving it already in possession of the northern bank, a position between Vienna and the French on the southern bank, pursued two leagues below Vienna, and broken by two islands. Proper bridges, Napoleon on the farther and larger side, hence by a third bridge on the northern bank. Meeting there a position for his army, he moved to the village of Esling,

at day-break, the archduke found himself opposite to the enemy, divided only by an extensive plain. A battle ensued, and the conflict was obstinate and bloody. Towards evening the French had been driven from Asperne, but still retained possession of Esling. During the battle the archduke had sent fire-ships, which succeeded in destroying the bridges communicating with the southern bank. On the next day the contest was renewed with additional fury. At length the Austrian left, under general Belling, gained the right flank of the enemy, who then retreated towards the Danube, and on the following night recrossed the river to Lobau. The Austrians honestly avowed the loss of 20,000

men, but they could boast of capturing 8,000 prisoners. The loss of the French in killed and wounded was immense; and among the former was marshal Lasnes, duke of Montebello, much regretted, who had acquired from his heroism the appellation of the Orlando of the French army.

The attention of the public was now fixed on Napoleon, who, it was generally supposed, was thus reduced to a most perilous situation,—shut up with his main force in an island of the Danube, a victorious army facing him on the opposite bank, and the Austrians masters of the navigation of the river; and in this state, for several weeks, a scene of total and surprising inaction ensued.

At this critical juncture the inhabitants of the Tyrol, who in courage and loftiness of spirit much resembled the Swiss and Grisons, were roused to action. They had indignantly seen themselves transferred from the government of Austria, which had ever respected their privileges, to the despotic dominion of Bavaria. Scarcely had the archduke Charles commenced the campaign, than the Tyrolese rose in arms; under their heroic countryman Hoffer, who, without having been bred to the profession, displayed wonderful military talents. And though, subsequent to the battle of Eckmuhl, the duke of Dantzic (marshal Le Febvre), and the Bavarian general Wrede, were sent to reduce the country, and prosecuted a savage warfare for that purpose, the Tyrolese persevered with unconquerable valour in its defence; and on the recall of Le Febvre, after the battle of Esling, these

enraged mountaineers retaliated by destructive inroads into Bavaria.

In the north of Germany, a strong disposition to rise in opposition to the tyranny of France at this time manifested itself, had any rallying point existed. Colonel Schill, an officer late in the Prussian service, raised the standard of independence at Luneburg, and was joined by great numbers; but he was opposed and overpowered by a far

Weser.

In Poland, the archduke Ferdinand being resisted by a very inferior force under prince Poniatowski, nephew to the late king Stanislaus, and whose great qualities made him the object of his country's secret hope and warm attachment, took possession of Warsaw, but was recalled in consequence of the early disasters of the Austrian arms. The Russians then joining the Poles, occupied nearly the whole of the Austro-Polish provinces; but the emperor Alexander shewed no disposition to push the war with vigour.

In Italy, where the archduke John commanded, the first operations of the Austrians were also successful, and he captured the cities of Padua and Vicenza ; but, subsequently to the battle of Eckmuhl, he was also recalled to the defence of Austria. In his retreat, the archduke was closely followed by the viceroy prince Eugene Beauharnois, who obtained several advantages over him ; and on the auspicious anniversary of the battle of Marengo, the two armies coming to a general engagement near Raab in Hungary, the Austrians were totally defeated, and that great bulwark of the kingdom fell into the hands of the enemy.

During the interval of dread repose which passed after the battle of Esling, all the demonstrations of the French seemed to be pointed against that position, which was, in the expectation of attack, rendered almost impregnable by redoubts and intrenchments. But on the night of July 4th, a bridge of vast dimensions was thrown across the river, with almost magical expedition and skill, opposite the left wing of the Austrians stationed at Wagram. Early next morning the whole French army had crossed the river, and appeared in order of battle. Thus surprised and disconcerted, the archduke Charles spent the day in manœuvring and altering his dispositions. On the 6th of July, at sunrise, the long expected contest commenced.

In his efforts to outflank the enemy the archduke dangerously weakened his centre, upon which an assault was made with accumulated

force. The Austrians, unable to withstand the shock, gave way, though by slow degrees, retreating finally near a league from the ground, leaving the wings exposed to an attack from the dukes of Rivoli and Auerstadt (Massena and Davoust), which was done with great effect. The village of Wagram being also forced by the enemy, the Austrians, perceiving the fate of the battle decided, fled with precipitation, in which they were pursued as far as Znaim in Moravia.

At Znaim Napoleon received a proposal from the emperor Francis to treat of peace; and an armistice was acceded to, on the surrender of divers fortresses, which was continued from time to time till the month of October, when a definitive treaty was concluded and signed at the palace of Schonbrun, the head-quarters of Napoleon, near Vienna. The terms of the treaty proved much less unfavourable than might have been expected from the forlorn and hopeless condition of Austria, whose armies were now dispersed and ruined. To Bavaria the emperor Francis was obliged to yield the important territory of Salzburg, with other districts in the vicinity. To France were ceded Fiume and Trieste, with the entire line of coast connecting the dominions of France on both sides of the Adriatic. In Poland the king of Saxony obtained, in addition to the provinces constituting the duchy of Warsaw, the western Gallicia, with the city of Cracow. Another portion of Austrian Poland was assigned to Russia, which had derived advantages from the

misfortunes of every other nation. The title of Joseph Buonaparte, as king of Spain, was recognized. The Tyrolese were abandoned to their fate; that heroic people still maintaining an unavailing resistance. At length, overwhelmed rather than vanquished, tranquillity, or what was called by that name, was restored, and the blood-stained triumph of Bavaria was crowned by the barbarous execution of the patriot Hoffer.

After the British army had embarked from Corunna, the French emperor bent all his efforts to the subjugation of Spain. The neighbourhood of Saragossa had constantly been the theatre of hostilities; and that renowned city, which had repeatedly baffled all the efforts of the enemy, was one of the first objects of his vengeance. A number of fugitives from the army of Castanos, which was defeated at Tudela on the 23d of November 1809, had retreated to Saragossa, and together with its martial citizens and armed peasants from the country, composed a body of 50,000 men, under the command of the renowned Palafox. The siege was conducted by the duke of Montebello, one of the ablest of the French generals. On the 26th of January the French made their grand attack. About noon on the following day the breaches were practicable, and the assailants entered the city. General Lacoste, and a great number of their bravest officers and men, fell in the assault. The determined resolution of the inhabitants, who disputed every inch of ground, and converted every house into a

fortress, reduced the French to the necessity of mining and blowing up the houses. The Spaniards, on their part, had recourse to counter-mining; and the effects of this subterraneous war were dreadfully destructive. During these tremendous operations, the batteries kept up an incessant fire; and by mining and blowing up the houses as they proceeded, the French, on the 17th of February, at length became masters of the city. No fewer than 20,000 of its brave defenders were buried under its ruins, after a resistance to which history can scarcely furnish any parallel, and which will render the siege of Saragossa memorable to all future ages.

A series of disasters falling in rapid succession, now seemed to have sealed the doom of Spain. An advantage gained by the duke of Albuquerque on the 23d of February, over a corps of French at Consevegra, was but a slender compensation for those multiplied misfortunes. The French army in Catalonia made three powerful attacks on that of the Spaniards under general Reding. In the last of these actions, the Spanish general, after an obstinate conflict in which he was severely wounded, was on the 12th March driven from his position, and compelled to retire to Tarragona. Soon after this disaster general Cuesta was defeated, 29th March, at Medellin, and obliged to retreat to Monasterio. The patriots about this time recovered Vigo; but their casual advantages were sunk in the long train of successive disasters; and the French having made



themselves masters of the centre of Spain, were pushing forward the different divisions of their army towards the extremities of the kingdom.

A better understanding now began to take place between Great Britain and Portugal. General Beresford, invested by the regency with the rank of field-marshal, was most usefully employed in organizing a native force to act with the British army. The duke of Dalmatia having entered Portugal at Barga, on the 29th of March took possession of Talavera. In order to preserve his communications, that general had left a garrison at Chaves; which fortress was soon after recovered by Don Francisco Silveira, an active and gallant officer, who continued to harass the French, and straiten their quarters, when, on the 22d of April, sir Arthur Wellesley once more landed at Lisbon with large reinforcements. Instantly repairing to Coimbra, he put himself at the head of his assembled forces, and advanced against Oporto; at the same time detaching marshal Beresford to occupy the fords of the Upper Douro. Marshal Soult, finding himself in danger of being insulated, judged it necessary to evacuate Oporto, and to retreat in haste, which he did, not without sustaining great loss, into Galicia. Meanwhile marshal Victor, who commanded in Estremadura, after defeating the Spanish general Cuesta at Medellin, had made himself master of Alcantara; upon which the British commander returned to the south, and Victor retired to his former station at Guadiana. The

operations in Galicia and the Asturias, under general Romana, were also favourable; and the French were nearly driven from these provinces.

Sir Arthur Wellesley on the 20th of July effected his junction with Cuesta at Oropesa; but marshal Victor, aware of his danger, had by this time crossed the Tagus at the famous bridge of Almaraz, that noble monument of Roman magnificence. The allied British and Portuguese army marched along the banks of the river towards Olalla, the head-quarters of Victor, who had now received large reinforcements from Madrid, led on by king Joseph in person. The British commander took an advantageous position near Talavera de la Reyna, general Cuesta's encampment on the right extending to the Tagus. Early on the morning of the 28th the enemy attacked the British in force, making a demonstration also on the opposite quarter. The battle continued at intervals during the whole day, and ended in the final repulse of the enemy, though with the loss, including about 1000 Spanish troops, of nearly 7000 men in killed, wounded, and missing: that of the French was supposed to be still greater.

Marshals Ney, Soult, and Mortier, now advanced in great force upon the rear of the allies, and it became necessary for them to retreat; crossing the Tagus, therefore, they continued their route to Badajos. On the eastern side of the Peninsula, general Blake, after a fruitless attempt to recover Saragossa, was attacked and

totally routed by the duke of Albufera (marshal Suchet) on the 19th of June ;—and this disaster was followed by a much greater ; for the central army, said to consist of 50,000 men, under the marquis Ariezaga, advancing upon Madrid with the view of passing the Tagus at Aranjuez, was encountered, 19th November, by the French under king Joseph, assisted by the marshals Soult, Mortier, and Victor, at Ocana, near the south bank of that river, when the action terminated in a signal victory on the part of the enemy. The vanquished army retreated in confusion beyond the mountains. In the month of December the strong and important fortress of Gerona, after a long resistance, surrendered to marshal Augereau, duke of Castiglione.

Notwithstanding the ruinous state of the Swedish army and finances, with the recent loss of Finland and Pomerania, the king of Sweden, with what his subjects deemed insensate obstinacy, and the British ministry “the most honourable firmness,” persisted in the war. At length the ancient spirit of the Swedes awoke from its slumber: On the morning of the 13th of March, as the king was preparing to leave Stockholm for his country residence, he was suddenly arrested in his own palace by general Aldercreutz. He drew his sword in rage, but was immediately overpowered, and sent as a prisoner to the fortress of Drottningholm, near the capital. The duke of Sudermania instantly issued a proclamation, in quality of ad-

ministrator, declaring the incapacity and deposition of the king.

The diet assembled in May, when an act of abdication, signed by Gustavus IV., was produced, and a decree passed, that he and his issue, born and not born, were for ever excluded from the throne of Sweden. A new constitution was framed, by which the sacred rights of the nation were restored, and the duke of Sudermania, with united heart and voice, elected king, under the name of Charles XIII. ; and being without children, Christian Augustus, a prince of the house of Holstein, was declared presumptive heir of the crown. A treaty of peace followed, 17th September, with Russia, by which the whole of Finland, and that valuable portion of Bothnia bounded by the Torneo, with the isle of Aland, were ceded to Russia. English ships, with certain exceptions, were excluded from the Swedish ports. The deposed monarch was soon after this liberated from his imprisonment ; and on the wise and generous recommendation of his successor, an ample provision was made for his maintenance, on condition of fixing his residence in Switzerland, to which he readily and even gratefully acceded, assuming only the title of count Gottorp. An accommodation between Sweden and France took place in December 1809, in consequence of which the former recovered Pomerania and the isle of Rugen.

In the early part of the month of June, sir John Stuart, commander of the British army in

Sicily, undertook an expedition against the kingdom and capital of Naples, the principal object of which, according to his representation, was to make a diversion in favour of Austria. Embarking with a body of 15,000 British troops, which was afterwards joined by a body of Sicilians, he appeared on the 13th off the coast of Calabria. On perceiving them, the enemy abandoned a line of posts on the shore opposite Messina, which were seized and dismantled by a detachment under lieutenant-colonel Smith. On the 24th the advanced division of the fleet anchored off Cape Miseno, and preparations were immediately made for an attack on the isle of Ischia. A descent being effected in the face of a formidable chain of batteries, the defences of the enemy were turned, and their principal force retired to the castle, which surrendered on the 30th. The adjacent garrison of Procida was also summoned, and submitted on the same day; which circumstance paved the way for the capture of forty gun-boats in their passage from Gaeta to Naples. The result of this part of the enterprise was a loss to the enemy of more than 1500 prisoners, besides killed and wounded, and of nearly 100 pieces of ordnance, at a small expense to the victors. Such a force was now assembled for the defence of Naples, that sir John Stuart saw no prospect of success in an attempt against that capital; and he therefore contented himself with the satisfaction of witnessing the effect of his diversion, which was that of the sudden recall of

a considerable body of troops detached as a reinforcement to the army of Upper Italy, and of those sent into the Roman states. That effect, however, had no permanent consequence. An unsuccessful attempt on the castle of Scylla, which the enemy afterwards abandoned, blowing up the works, concluded the military operations of the British in this quarter; and the fleet and army quitted the possession of the islands near Naples, and returned to Sicily.

An expedition of much greater moment occupied the attention of the British ministry during the summer of this year, 1809, and was long the object to which the expectations of the nation were principally directed. Early in May preparations were making for fitting out the greatest armament that for a long period had issued from the English ports; and towards the end of July an army of 40,000 men was collected, to be assisted by a fleet of thirty-nine sail of the line, and thirty-six frigates, besides numerous gun-boats, bomb-vessels, and small craft. The chief command of the army was intrusted to the earl of Chatham, a nobleman certainly bearing a name highly illustrious in the political world, but who had never obtained personal distinction in a military capacity. The naval force was placed under the direction of sir Richard Strahan. The principal object of this expedition was to gain possession of the islands commanding the entrance of the Scheldt, and especially the port of Flushing; and to destroy the French men-of-war in that

river, with the dock-yards and arsenals, on which great labour had been bestowed, as an essential part of Napoleon's project for contending on equal terms with the navy of England.

The armament set sail on the 28th of July, and on the 1st of August invested Flushing. A dreadful cannonade and bombardment commenced on the 13th, which on the 15th produced from the commander of the garrison, general Monnet, a request for a suspension of arms. This was followed by a surrender, which yielded near 6,000 men prisoners of war. During the siege of this place, a great number of troops from the Belgic and nearest French provinces were assembled for the defence of Antwerp; so that an attack upon that important place, and the fleet lying under its fortifications, whatever might have been its success at the commencement of the enterprise, was now thought too unpromising to be hazarded; and although possession had been obtained of the islands of Walcheren and South Beveland, the forts higher up the Scheldt had been put into such a state, that an attempt to pass them by the men-of-war would probably have been attended with great loss. The troops likewise were becoming very sickly, from their position in these low and marshy grounds in the most unhealthy season of the year.

From these considerations lord Chatham was induced to depart for England, on the 14th of September, with the greatest part of his army: the remainder were left to keep possession of

Walcheren, for the purpose of blocking up the Scheldt, and affording an inlet for the British commerce into Holland, where the people were well disposed to admit colonial and other commodities. To the troops, however, this determination was extremely fatal: numbers died on the spot, and many more brought back chronic diseases, which long rendered the name of the Walcheren fever a subject of terror. The opinions of the ministry relative to the retaining or abandoning this pestiferous spot, were in a state of fluctuation. In the middle of September a requisition was made for a number of the peasantry of the island to repair and strengthen the fortifications of Flushing; and, near the end of October, an hundred artificers arrived from England with brick and lime. Towards the middle of November the demolition of the works and basin for shipping was begun; and on the 23d of December Walcheren was completely evacuated by the relics of the British army, nearly one-half of which was either dead or on the sick list. Such was the termination of an expedition which, after a prodigious expense, totally disappointed the public hopes, and afforded a subject of mockery to the enemies of the nation.

In other quarters, the arms and councils of Great Britain were attended with better success. In the month of January an expedition, under the command of general Prevost and admiral Cochrane, appeared off the island of Martinique, and a landing was effected on the following day.



After some severe actions, in which the French were driven from various strong posts, they withdrew their troops to Fort Bourbon, which was immediately invested by the British. The place was captured on the 24th of February with little farther loss, and all resistance ceasing, the island was reduced under the dominion of his Britannic Majesty. The French colony of Cayenne was about the same time captured by a combined force of English and Portuguese; the former under the command of captain Yeo of the navy.

A French fleet of nine sail of the line, lying in the road of Aix near Rochelle, protected by the forts of that island, lord Cochrane, who was acting under the orders of admiral Gambier, proposed to make an attack upon it with a squadron of five ships, frigates, and smaller armed vessels. Standing in with a favourable wind on the 11th of April, a boom laid across the entrance was broken through by the leading ship, and the greater part of the French ships slipped their cables and ran for the shore. On the following day lord Cochrane gave information by telegraph to the admiral, that seven of the enemy's ships were on shore, in a situation which afforded an opportunity of destroying them. It being however found that the state of the wind rendered it hazardous to enter the roads, in which the water was shallow, with the large ships, admiral Gambier, who had unmoored, anchored again three miles from the forts, and sent all the small vessels to the attack. Lord Cochrane, leading the way,

opened a fire on a ship of 56 guns, which struck, and this was followed by three others of the line, which were also forced to strike; all of which were set on fire and destroyed. The other French ships being got into deep water, moved up the river Charente, where it was impracticable to molest them; but it was doubtful whether they could be again got out to sea.

Lord Collingwood, who had succeeded Nelson in the chief command of the ships in the Mediterranean, having proposed to general Stuart an expedition against the islands of Zante, Cephalonia, and others, whilst the French should be occupied with the defence of Naples, a joint force from Messina, Malta, and Corfu, was arranged for this purpose, and on the 1st of October it anchored in the Bay of Zante. On the following day a capitulation was agreed on, by which all that group of islands surrendered to the British arms, and the government of the septinsular republic was restored.

On the 23d of October three French ships of the line and four frigates, with a convoy of about twenty vessels, were descried coming from Toulon. Lord Collingwood directed rear-admiral Martin to proceed with a squadron in chase of them; and on the 25th, off the mouth of the Rhone, two of the French ships of the line were chased on shore, and set on fire by the crews; while a third, with a frigate, ran on shore at the entrance of the port of Cette, with little chance of being got off. The convoy mostly escaped at the time into the

Bay of Rosas; but on the 30th some ships, with the boats of the fleet, under the orders of captain Hallowell, entering into the bay, most gallantly overcame all the resistance made, as well from the vessels as from the castle of Rosas and the forts, and captured or destroyed the whole, though not without considerable loss. The lading of the convoy was for the supply of the French army in Spain.

In the office of president of the United States of America, Mr Jefferson, who declined a second re-election, was succeeded by Mr Madison. The embargo, which had been severely felt from its long continuance, was repealed, and an act substituted, prohibiting all intercourse with France and England, with a proviso, that if either nation rescinded its obnoxious decrees, the prohibition relative to that nation should cease. Mr Erskine, the English envoy in America, was consequently empowered to promise, that if the American interdiction of July 1807 were withdrawn, the commerce of America with the French colonies should be placed on the same footing as in times of peace, the British cruisers being allowed to capture all vessels trading contrary to this restriction. But Mr Erskine ventured also, without proper authority, as would appear, to declare the orders in council rescinded from the 10th of June 1809, on the general engagement "that an envoy extraordinary would be received by the president, with a disposition correspondent to that of his Britannic Majesty." The British government,

however, refused its ratification to this agreement, and the prohibitory laws were again enforced. Mr Jackson was sent out as successor to Mr Erskine, and his language was so offensive that congress refused to receive any communications from him; on which he withdrew from Washington to New York.

The legislative body of France met on the 3d of December, on which occasion the emperor Napoleon addressed them in a style of lofty congratulation. Adverting to the late expedition to Holland, he told them "that the English army had terminated its projects in the pestilential marshes of Walcheren. The pope, whose weakness or treachery opposed our progress in Spain, is stripped of his temporal power and territory, and compelled to restore it to the successor of Charlemagne, from whom he received it. By the treaty of Vienna, all my allies have acquired fresh increase of territory. The Illyrian provinces stretch the frontiers of my great empire to the Save. Holland, placed between England and France, must undergo some changes, in order to ensure the safety of the empire, and to promote their mutual interest;"—and he concluded his address with the prediction of new triumphs in the Peninsula. In the annual *exposé*, which immediately followed, the great works carrying on under the auspices of the emperor are particularly enumerated. The Canal Napoleon, uniting the Rhine and the Rhone, the immense works at Cherbourg, the magnificent military roads travers-

ing the Alps, the Apennines, and the Pyrenees, the draining of the marshes of Burgundy, &c. &c. all these were indeed imperial works, and worthy of his fame and power.

It had been for some time understood that a divorce from the empress Josephine was in agitation ; not from any personal alienation, but from the hope that a young bride might give an heir to the vast empire of Charlemagne, revived in the person of " Napoleon the Great." Accordingly, on the 16th of December, this design was formally announced to the senate, which without hesitation passed a decree authorizing the divorce ; and this was cheerfully acceded to by Josephine as essential to the public weal. The archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor Francis, was then announced as the future empress. This had been arranged at Vienna during the preceding summer, and the marriage was celebrated at Paris in the ensuing month of March, with pomp and festivity. The young princess was not only amiable in her person, but possessed every accomplishment that could adorn her exalted station.

In the course of this year several changes had taken place in the English cabinet, some of them attended with circumstances worth mentioning. It was perceived that Mr Canning did not enter very cordially into the defence of lord Castlereagh on the charge relative to the India writership ; but it was not then suspected that he had previously applied to the duke of Portland for the removal of that nobleman, if not from the cabinet,

at least from the war department, (for which indeed the public voice declared him wholly unfit), strongly recommending the marquis Wellesley as his successor ; and that he had even obtained a promise from the premier to that effect, though not for its immediate execution ;—and for several succeeding months the two secretaries acted together with all the forms of friendship.

The melancholy termination of the Walcheren expedition, however, brought this state of masked hostility to a crisis. Mr Canning again urged his suit, but was surprised to find that no communication had been made to lord Castlereagh by the duke of Portland, who, on the contrary, signified his own intention to relinquish office from growing infirmity ; upon which Mr Canning gave in his resignation. Lord Castlereagh being now informed of all the circumstances, so highly resented the offence as to make an immediate demand of satisfaction. A duel accordingly took place on the 21st of September, in the result of which Mr Canning was severely wounded. This affair, though politically injurious to the administration, did not personally injure lord Castlereagh in the view of the public ; Mr Canning's long concealment, owing indeed to the imbecility of the duke of Portland, and altogether unintentional, being manifestly improper.

On the 23d of September Mr Percival, upon whom, in consequence of the resignation of the premier and the two secretaries, the chief, it may be said the sole weight of the government, now

devolved, wrote to earl Grey and lord Grenville, stating, "that his Majesty had authorized the earl of Liverpool (late lord Hawkesbury) and himself, to communicate with their lordships for the purpose of forming an extended and combined administration ; and requesting their presence in London." As under the actual circumstances no such overture could have been hazarded without the determination to allow the whigs a decided lead in the combined administration, a very favourable opportunity, as was generally thought, occurred to unite and reconcile the two great opposing parties of the state. Yet this advance was received with a coldness which can only be accounted for by calling to mind the circumstances under which they had formerly quitted office. Lord Grenville indeed repaired to town, in obedience to what he considered to be an intimation of the king's pleasure ; but in his answer to Mr Percival, dated the 29th of September, he peremptorily declined the communication proposed, declaring, "that it could not be considered in any other light than as a dereliction of public principle."

Earl Grey, writing from his seat in Northumberland, declared "his attendance in town unnecessary, unless he had received the king's commands to that effect ;" and, in terms equally strong with lord Grenville, avowed "an union with the present ministers to be, with respect to himself, impossible ; and that the proposed communication could lead to no useful result." Mr

Percival in reply explained, "that the proposal was not for the accession of their lordships to the present administration, but for the formation of a combined and extended one." Here the correspondence ended; and the present ministers being compelled to act with energy, or resign at discretion, Mr Percival accepted the office of first lord of the treasury: marquis Wellesley, who had superseded Mr Frere in Spain, was recalled to receive the seals of the foreign department: lord Liverpool succeeded lord Castlereagh as minister at war; and the honourable Richard Ryder, lord Liverpool in the home department.

If the administration were injured in their popularity by the late train of events, no part of this displeasure fell upon the king, who seems to have gained ground upon the affections of his subjects, in proportion as advanced years and infirmities (for he had now nearly suffered a privation of sight) excited the feelings of commiseration in his behalf. The 25th of October of this year, being the fiftieth celebration of his accession to the throne, was distinguished throughout the United Kingdom as a jubilee, and was marked by every demonstration of loyal attachment and reverence.



## CHAPTER VI.

1810.

THE parliament of the United Kingdom was convened on the 23d of January, and never did the political atmosphere exhibit a deeper gloom. Russia, the only continental power which could singly cope with France, was in strict alliance with the French emperor. Austria had been once more prostrate at his feet. The resistance of Spain, in the general opinion, had become almost hopeless; and all the other powers of Europe were in a state of vassalage. Yet, under these unfavourable circumstances, the speech delivered by the lord chancellor, in his Majesty's name, expressed "his just confidence, under divine Providence, in the wisdom of his parliament, the valour of his forces, and the spirit of his people. His Majesty hoped that material advantages would be found to result from the demolition of the docks and arsenals of Flushing. The expulsion of the French from Portugal, and the glorious victory obtained by lord viscount Wellington at Talavera, had contributed to check the progress of their arms in the Peninsula. Assurances had been received of the friendly disposition of America; and his Majesty had much satisfaction in declaring the flourishing state of the national commerce, and increasing produce of the revenue."

In the house of lords the address was encountered by lord St Vincent, who severely censured the measures of government. He was followed by lord Grenville, who moved an amendment to the address, conceived in pointed terms of blame towards ministers, and expressing a resolution to institute a vigorous and effectual inquiry into the source of our disasters. Lord Sidmouth and his friends voted with the court, as thinking the amendment too strongly worded, and amounting to condemnation previous to inquiry. This was probably the case with many others; yet in the house of peers the division was 144 to 92.

In the house of commons, the motion for the address produced one for an amendment by lord Gower, nearly in the same terms with that moved in the upper house, and it occasioned a debate of a similar character. On this occasion, the merits of sir John Moore formed a leading topic in the speeches of the opposition in both houses, who accused the ministers of having encouraged attacks upon him by party writers; while, on the other hand, they were free in their strictures on the conduct of lord Wellington, whose advance into Spain they censured as rash and unadvised, and whose victory at Talavera they considered as an useless success. The Walcheren expedition was of course a fertile topic of severe animadversion. The appointment of lord Chatham to the command having been one of the topics of blame, Mr Percival, in his reply, contented himself with saying, that the result of the inquiry, if any

inquiry were thought necessary, would in a great measure decide the question of the propriety or impropriety of the appointment of that noble lord to the command of the expedition." The amendment to the address in the house of commons was negatived by 263 to 167 votes.

The speech of Mr Percival, on this occasion, was particularly modest and conciliatory. In adverting to the overture made by the command of the king to the lords Grey and Grenville, he protested that he did not wish for the situation which he then occupied. The circumstances of the times required a strong and extended administration; and he hoped that the application would have been successful. Had he been at liberty to state his proposals, the *first* would have been to resign the treasury to their disposal.

After a variety of other proceedings, in which the same subjects were indirectly brought under discussion, on the 26th of January lord Porchester moved in the house of commons, "that a committee be appointed to inquire into the policy and the conduct of the late expedition to the Scheldt." This motion was carried by the small majority of 195 to 186; and a committee of the whole house was fixed on for the purpose. His lordship afterwards moved for an address to the king for copies of instructions given to the commanders, and other papers, which was agreed to; and a secret committee was nominated for the inspection of such confidential communication as was deemed improper to be made public.

Among the papers thus moved for, there was found "A copy of the earl of Chatham's statement of his proceedings, dated October 15. 1809, and presented to the king February 14. 1810." This document, from its contents, appeared to be an appeal to his Majesty by the commander of one part of the expedition against the conduct of the commander of another part, and the circumstance occasioned much debate in the house. A motion being made by Mr Whitbread for an address to his Majesty, requesting that there might be laid before the house copies of all reports and other papers submitted at any time to his Majesty by the earl of Chatham, relative to the late expedition, was carried, on a division, by 178 to 171 votes. The answer returned to the address signified, that the king had received a report from lord Chatham on the 15th of January, which he had kept till February the 10th, when it was returned to the earl in consequence of his desire to make some alterations in it: that the report thus altered having been again presented to the king on the 14th, it was directed by his Majesty to be delivered to the secretary of state, and no copy of it was kept by the king. Mr Whitbread, on the 2d of March, moved two resolutions respecting this matter: one stating the fact as above mentioned; the other, a strong censure of the same. After a long debate the previous question was moved, but negatived by 221 to 188 voices; and the first resolution being then carried, Mr Whitbread waved the second,

and admitted a modification of it proposed by Mr Canning. It was then determined that the resolution should be entered on the journals of the house; the consequence of which was, that lord Chatham resigned his office of master-general of the ordnance.

When the proceedings relative to the Walcheren expedition first came before the house, Mr Yorke moved an enforcement of the standing order for the exclusion of strangers, which he continued to move from day to day. Mr Sheridan, therefore, moved a revision of the standing order, so that the decision should not rest upon the caprice of any individual member. This was vehemently opposed by Mr Windham, who launched into a wild and furious invective against the reporters of the debates in parliament. He professed, indeed, to know nothing of them personally; but he understood them to be a set of men who were chargeable with the most corrupt misrepresentations; that among them were to be found persons of all descriptions, bankrupts, lottery-office-keepers, decayed tradesmen, and even serving men. Those gentry had their favourites; and his honourable friend was esteemed and hailed by them as a patron of the liberty of the press; but he exhorted the house to maintain their ancient rules and orders. This singular tirade was answered with spirit and temper by Mr Stephens, an eminent civilian, who had himself, in his earlier days, been a reporter of the debates in parliament.

Another circumstance, incidentally connected with the debates on the Walcheren expedition, was productive of consequences which rendered the present session memorable in parliamentary history. There was at this time a debating society in London, under the name of the British Forum, the president of which was John Gale Jones. On the 19th of February a placard appeared in the streets of London, informing the public that a question had been debated at the British Forum, "Which was the greater outrage on the public feeling, Mr Yorke's enforcement of the standing order of the house of commons for the exclusion of strangers, or Mr Windham's attack on the liberty of the press? And that it was unanimously decided, that the enforcement of the standing order ought to be censured as an insidious and ill-timed attack on the liberties of the press."

Mr Yorke was so indiscreet as to bring this paper under the cognizance of the house of commons, and an order was made for the printer of it to attend at the bar, who declared that he had been employed to print it by John Gale Jones. This man was accordingly cited before the honourable house on the 21st of February, when he avowed himself the author of the paper, and added, that he considered it to be the privilege of every Englishman to animadvert on public measures and the conduct of public men; but that, on looking over the paper again, he found that he had erred, for which he expressed his sincere

contrition, and threw himself upon the mercy of the house. A vote then passed the house unanimously, that "John Gale Jones had been guilty of a gross violation of the privileges of the house;" which was followed by a motion from Mr Yorke for his commitment to Newgate, and this also passed unanimously.

On the 12th of March, sir Francis Burdett, who had not been present at the former proceedings, called the attention of the house once more to the subject, in a speech in which he ventured to deny altogether the power of the house to commit, and ended with moving, that John Gale Jones be discharged. Mr Sheridan said, that he should vote for the release of Jones, though not upon the principles contended for in the speech of the honourable baronet; and he moved an amendment, that Jones should be discharged in consequence of the contrition which he had expressed, and the length of his imprisonment. The amendment was rejected without a division, and the original motion negatived by a majority of 153 to 14 votes.

On the 24th of March there appeared in Cobbett's Weekly Register a letter, entitled "Sir Francis Burdett to his constituents, denying the power of the house of commons to imprison the people of England," detailing the arguments which he had used in the house of commons. This publication was brought before the house on the 26th by Mr Lethbridge, at whose desire the speaker put the question to sir Francis, whether

he acknowledged himself to be the author, which he answered in the affirmative. Notice was then given of a motion by Mr Lethbridge on the subject, which he made on the following day. After reading several of the most obnoxious passages in the letter, he moved two resolutions : the first, affirming that the publication in question was a libellous and scandalous paper, reflecting upon the just rights and liberties of the house ; the second, that sir Francis Burdett, who suffered this paper to be printed with his name, had been guilty of a violation of the privileges of this house.

These resolutions were agreed to without a division, and a motion was made by sir Robert Salisbury for his commitment to the Tower. An amendment was proposed, softening the sentence to a reprimand, which was rejected by 190 votes to 152 ; and the speaker signed the warrants for commitment, and on the 6th of April they were delivered to the sergeant-at-arms. That officer, on going to the house of sir Francis, was informed that he would be ready to receive him on the next morning ; which being construed by that officer as implying that he would go with him peaceably to the Tower, he retired. He however returned, accompanied by a messenger, who said that the sergeant had been severely reprimanded by the speaker for not having executed the warrant. Sir Francis now disputed the legality of the warrant, and declared his determination not to go unless



compelled by actual force, which he would resist as far as lay in his power.

After a delay occasioned by the speaker's doubts respecting his authority, and concerning which he obtained the opinion of the attorney-general, the sergeant went on the morning of the 9th of April, attended by a number of police officers, and a detachment of cavalry and infantry, to convey sir Francis to the Tower. An entrance was forced into the house through the area, and the sergeant with the police officers went up into a room where sir Francis was sitting with his family, and acquainted him that he was his prisoner. He repeated his objections to the warrant, and declared that he would yield only to actual force. The constables on this advanced to seize him, when he was led by his brother and a friend, taking his arms, and conducted to the carriage in waiting, whence he was conveyed to the Tower without opposition.

As the escort which guarded the prisoner was returning from the Tower, a numerous mob assembled in East-cheap attacked them with stones and brick-bats, which they bore for some time with great patience. At length the attack becoming serious, some shots were fired, by which two or three lives were lost, and several persons were wounded. On two preceding evenings, the mob assembled round the house of sir Francis in Piccadilly, and committed many outrages in that and the adjacent streets, which rendered the aid of the military necessary to disperse them. A

letter transmitted by sir Francis to the speaker, after his receipt of the warrant, which was conceived in terms highly disrespectful to the authority of the house, became a topic of debate on the 10th of April, with regard to the manner in which it should be treated; but a resolution was at length unanimously passed, "that it is the opinion of this house, that the said letter is a high and flagrant breach of the privileges of the house; but it appearing from the report of the sergeant-at-arms, that the warrant of the speaker for the commitment of sir Francis Burdett to the Tower has been executed, this house will not at this time proceed further on the said letter."

On his liberation, sir Francis Burdett brought actions at law against the speaker of the house of commons for issuing his warrant, against the sergeant-at-arms for executing it, and against the constable of the Tower for keeping him in custody, in all which he failed, on the plea of the legality of the warrant. His want of success, however, in these suits, was abundantly compensated to him by the numerous instances of attachment which he received as the champion of popular rights, in the form of addresses to himself, and petitions to parliament for his liberation. Some of the latter, especially the petition from the electors of Westminster, and that from the freeholders of Middlesex, were so severe and contemptuous in their expressions to the house, that they were not received. His confinement was not terminated till the prorogation of parliament,

when a triumphal procession from the Tower to his house was planned by his friends ; but he disappointed their expectations by a silent return by water, for which he assigned the prudential reason of avoiding any occasion of further mischief.

On the 16th of May the chancellor of exchequer brought before the house of commons his annual budget of finance. The supplies voted were stated at L.50,500,000 for Great Britain and Ireland ; and among the ways and means for the former were the war-taxes, estimated at L.19,500,000, and a loan of L.8,000,000. No new taxes were proposed ; and a very favourable report was made of the commerce and general prosperity of the country. The foreign subsidies of the year were L.400,000 to Sicily, and L.900,000 to Portugal ; and a vote of credit for L.3,000,000 was passed to meet emergencies.

The subject of the slave trade was introduced in the house of commons by Mr Henry Brougham, and in the house of lords by lord Holland. The object was to address his Majesty, requesting him to persevere in his measures to induce other nations to co-operate in the abolition of the slave trade, and to take such further steps as might be found necessary for effecting it. Mr Brougham in his proposed address stated, that persons in this country continued to carry on this traffic in a clandestine and fraudulent manner ; and prayed that orders for checking such practices might be given to the commanders of his Majesty's vessels, and the officers of the customs. Both of these

addresses were voted without opposition ; and a resolution moved by Mr Brougham, for taking measures early in the next session to prevent evasions of the act abolishing the slave trade, was also unanimously agreed to. On the 21st of June the parliament was prorogued.

At the beginning of this year the cause of Spanish independence was rendered almost hopeless. The battle of Ocana had left no force in the least able to oppose the French in the field ; and although the supreme junta at Seville published an address to the Spanish nation, calculated to animate their patriotism and quiet their apprehensions, the forced loan which they required of half the specie possessed by individuals, with other sacrifices and exertions, were measures which their influence and reputation were not adequate to carry into effect.

About the middle of January the main army of the French arrived at the foot of the Sierra Morena, and on the 20th and 21st they forced their way through the passes of the mountains almost without resistance. They advanced to Jaen and Cordova, in which cities they found large quantities of ordnance and military stores. General Sebastiani with his division then marched from Grenada, and having routed the relics of the Spanish army at Ocana, he entered that city, which on the 28th threw open its gates to him. Malaga, in which a popular insurrection had deposed the regular authorities as being favourers of the French usurpation, and the country around

which had risen in arms at the instigation of the priests and monks, was the next object of Sebastiani's operations. With his advanced guard he cleared the fastnesses of the mountains, and encountering the numerous but disorderly mass of opponents on the plain, he routed them with considerable slaughter, and entered the city of Malaga with the fugitives. A contest was for some time kept up in the streets and from the houses; but at length all the inhabitants made their submission, except a few who took refuge on board three English men-of-war in the harbour. This was an important conquest, as it completed a line of posts occupied by the French from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, intersecting the whole of Spain through its capital.

On the 29th of January king Joseph issued a manifesto to the Spanish nation, in which he affected to consider the contest as now decided; and reminded them that it was the interest of France to preserve the integrity and independence of Spain; but if she should still remain an enemy, France must seek to weaken, dismember, and destroy her. Immediately after this menace marshal Victor appeared before Seville, from which the supreme junta had withdrawn to the Isle of Leon, near Cadiz, on his approach. That city was surrounded by fortifications of vast extent; but the defence of them would have required 60,000 men, whereas its garrison did not exceed 7000. Capitulation, therefore, was the only measure thought of, and the terms offered to the

garrison were, either to enlist in the army of king Joseph, or to lay down their arms and return to their homes. On the 10th of February the gates were opened to the French, who found in the place 200 pieces of ordnance, and a great quantity of arms, ammunition, and provisions.

The junta, who in this crisis of their country's fate seemed in general more attentive to their own interests than to the national cause, and who were suspected of an intention to enter into a compromise with king Joseph, had refused to admit into Seville and Cadiz a body of 7000 British troops from Lisbon, but allowed them to be disembarked in the Bay of Cadiz, for the purpose of being stationed in the neighbouring towns. Two English regiments had been admitted into Cadiz, but upon a promise that they should on no account remain in the fortress. This jealousy occasioned a declaration from the English minister,—that if the Spaniards would not consent to admit British troops into Cadiz, his Majesty must for the present withdraw from the contest, and leave it to be decided by the military efforts of Spain alone.

On the irruption of the French into Andalusia, general Castanos, suspecting the designs of the junta, had sent a confidential letter to the duke of Albuquerque, commander of the army in Estremadura, urging him to proceed with all possible celerity to Cadiz. With this he complied, and on the 3d of February entered that city with his troops. Preparations for defence were now made

with the greatest activity. All persons capable of bearing arms were enrolled. Magazines were established; and the whole Spanish fleet, amounting to twenty ships of the line, was moored in the harbour, under the direction of the English admiral Purvis, who brought in his own squadron. British troops both from Lisbon and Gibraltar were now received into the Isle of Leon, and an English reinforcement was admitted into the Spanish garrison of Ceuta. The suspicions which existed against the supreme junta having occasioned tumults among the people of Cadiz, in which they incurred personal danger, they found it expedient to resign their authority, which, before the assembling of the Cortes, they transferred to a regency of five persons; while a local junta was formed for the political and military government of the city.

On the 10th of February marshal Soult sent a summons to the duke of Albuquerque to surrender Cadiz, who returned an answer, stating the means of defence which he possessed, and his determination to make effectual use of them. A message of king Joseph to the junta of Cadiz for the like purpose, produced a reply, expressive of their determined attachment to their rightful sovereign king Ferdinand. The siege of Cadiz proceeded slowly, being much impeded by the assaults of the Guerilla partisans, who now began to take an important part in the war. A reinforcement of troops, with heavy artillery, however, arriving at the French lines in April, the besiegers took fort Matagorda, about two

miles from the city, on which they erected new works, from which the vessels entering Puntal heads were continually fired upon. By the close of the year the French batteries were able to throw shells into Cadiz, but the distance rendered their effect inconsiderable.

In the mean time military operations were prosecuted with vigour in the southern and eastern parts of Spain. General Blake, who was in Murcia reorganizing the defeated army of Arizaga, caused to arms the hardy mountaineers of Alparras in Grenada; and a detachment of Spanish troops under general Lacey, embarking at Algeiras, marched to Ronda, where a French force of 6000 men was stationed. These took a sudden panic and fled in disorder, leaving their arms and ammunition, which were distributed among the mountaineers; and for a considerable time a sanguinary warfare subsisted between them and the French. They were, however, ultimately driven to their fastnesses, but not subdued.

The insurrection now spread to the mountains of the borders of Murcia, and in April general Sebastiani entered that province, and after a number of petty actions obliged the Spaniards to retire to Alicant. A combined expedition of Spaniards and English sailed in August from Cadiz Moguer, a town near the sea, in the province of Seville, at which a French division was posted. The French were driven from the town and pursued; but upon the intelligence of a reinforcement advancing from Seville, the troops reembarked,



and returned to Cadiz. An enterprise against Malaga, undertaken from Gibraltar, under the command of lord Blaney, completely failed, and his lordship was taken prisoner.

On the eastern side of Spain, where marshal Suchet commanded, the strong fortress of Ostalric was taken early in the year, the Spanish general O'Donnel being defeated under its walls. Lerida; Mequinenza, and Tortosa, were successively captured; but Valencia, which was once more invested, made a furious sally upon the assailants, who withdrew in great confusion. Though the regular armies of Spain seemed no longer in existence, the war of the Guerillas, or armed peasantry, was carried on with implacable animosity and increasing effect. They every-where attacked the detached parties of the enemy, and harassed all the movements of the invaders. They intercepted their convoys, their escorts, and dispatches; so that the French could at no time, by the mere capture of towns and fortresses, be said to be in possession of the surrounding country. The regular forces of the kingdom, too, however dispersed, were still numerous; and though Spain in this war had produced no Gonsalvo, it abounded in valiant and active officers.

The most interesting events of the campaign occurred on the side of Portugal. It was evidently the great object of France to obtain the entire possession of that country. For this purpose it had been determined to commence with the reduction of the strong fortresses of Ciudad

Rodrigo and Almeida; the situation of, which being on the frontier between the two kingdoms, would give them the command of a free military communication from one to the other. As soon, therefore, as the capture of Oviêdo and Astorga had set at liberty a part of the French troops employed to keep in check the Spaniards of the northern provinces, marshal Ney began to invest Ciudad Rodrigo. In the mean time marshal Massena arrived from France, to take the command of the army destined for the conquest of Portugal, and consisting of about 80,000 men.

The siege of Ciudad Rodrigo was long obstructed by different impediments, one of which was the vicinity of the combined army of English and Portuguese under lord Wellington. At length, in the middle of June, the trenches were opened, Massena having arrived at the French camp, while Ney commanded the troops on the right bank of the Agueda, and Junot those on the left. A very formidable cannonade was kept up on both sides, till, on July the 10th, the explosion of a mine having made a practicable breach, which the besiegers were preparing to mount, the garrison surrendered at discretion, and about 7000 became prisoners of war.

Almeida was next invested, and the trenches were opened in the middle of August. It was garrisoned by 5000 men, partly English partly Portuguese, commanded by British officers, and its governor was brigadier-general Cox. The vigour of the defence would probably have long

had not a bomb alighted on the  
 e of powder, which occasioned  
 most destructive explosion, and  
 i in flames. Massena withheld  
 a flag of truce offering terms  
 which, after some time spent in  
 on the 27th of August acceded  
 i were allowed the honours of  
 d prisoners, except the Portu-  
 i were allowed to return home,  
 a entered into the French ser-

est for the possession of Portu-  
 mmence. Lord Wellington, to  
 e was committed, had found it  
 from Badajos, in December, to  
 Tagus. In February the English  
 troops were posted at a number of  
 in Portugal, and its frontier on  
 gain, lord Wellington having his  
 in the two following months at  
 g the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo the  
 of the army was at Guarda, whence  
 s might be descried, but nothing  
 of consequence could be undertaken for its relief.  
 After the surrender of Almeida, lord Wellington  
 concentrated the different divisions of the allied  
 army, and began his retreat towards Lisbon. He  
 had formed a defensive plan, to which he steadily  
 adhered.

As the army of marshal Massena was much  
 superior, at least in the number of troops on which

reliance could be placed, he resolved to avoid general actions, but to take advantage of every opportunity of retarding the enemy's advance, by positions. At the same time he practice the efficacious, though sending all the country in the very inhospitable to the French, all its inhabitants, with the whole property, the rest being destroyed. He issued a proclamation, dated 1st, by which all magistrates and offices under government, who should remain in towns and villages after receiving orders from any military officer to depart, and all persons whatever who should hold communications with the enemy, were declared traitors to their country, and as such subjected to punishment.

On the 21st of September all the force under Massena was concentrated at Viseu, where it halted for a time ; during which lord Wellington passed to the right of the Mondego, and occupied with his centre and left wing the Sierra Buzaco, which extends to that river. Massena, on arriving in front of his position on the 26th, resolved upon an attack, which he put in execution on the following day. The French pushed up the heights with great courage in different parts, and one division reached the summit of the ridge : they were, however, met with equal resolution at the point of the bayonet, and were finally repulsed with great loss, 2000 men being left on the field of

battle. The loss of the English and Portuguese was also considerable. As the French had suffered no more than a repulse, Massena immediately turned the British position, and made a circuitous march upon Coimbra. Lord Wellington anticipated his object, and arrived there before him by a more direct route; but the place affording no advantages for defence, he continued his retreat to the strong lines of Torres Vedras, about thirty miles from Lisbon, carrying with him almost all the population of the intervening district, including that of Coimbra, with their portable effects, and much individual distress was the necessary consequence of the removal. The sufferings of the poor Portuguese were however alleviated by liberal contributions in the capital, and by aids, both public and private, from England.

The French general, who closely followed the retreating army, after reconnoitering the posts of the allied army, and finding them admirably fortified and connected, contented himself with strengthening his own position and collecting provisions for his army, which soon became very scarce. His quarters were straitened by the Portuguese militia, which occupied the greatest part of the north-west, and a party of which, commanded by colonel Trant, had entered Coimbra and taken 5000 prisoners, chiefly sick and wounded. Massena now made Santarem his head-quarters, and extended his positions along the right bank of the Tagus, and thence to the Zezere, as far as the borders of Upper Beira. He received

from Spain reinforcements of troops and convoys of provisions ; but he was subject to difficulties and privations from which lord Wellington's army, with the capital behind it, and the sea open for supplies of every kind, was exempted. Such was the situation, at the close of the year, of the two great armies which were to decide the fate of Portugal.

The Cortes of Spain, so long expected and so long delayed, at length assembled at Cadiz on the 24th of September 1810. The members were elected by the provinces and cities, in a manner which bore an equal regard both to population and property ; and the elections took place even in the districts of which the fortresses were in the possession of the French. The first measure of the Spanish legislature was to swear allegiance to Ferdinand VII. as their true and lawful sovereign ; declaring the renunciations which took place at Bayonne to be totally null and void, as being extorted by violence and without the consent of the nation. The next step was to appoint a regency, consisting of general Blake, who was the most popular of their commanders, Don Pedro Agar, a naval officer high in reputation, and Don Gabriel Ciscar, governor of Carthagená ; and in them was vested the executive power.

In the instructions published early in the year by the supreme junta, the grand objects of assembling the Cortes are said to be " the salvation of the country, the restoration of the sovereign, and the re-establishment of an ameliorated constitu-

tion, worthy of the Spanish nation :” and the Cortes soon evinced that they understood not their duties only, but their rights; and knowing, were resolved to maintain them. Great discretion, however, was necessary in the exercise of these rights. By one of their first decrees, the press was declared free; “*except* that all writings on matters of religion shall remain subject to the same control they have been under since the council of Trent :” thus, from the necessity of circumstances, associating religious tyranny with political liberty. Yet, in no country were to be found persons of more enlightened patriotism than many of the Spanish ecclesiastics; and in the discussions which preceded the decree establishing the freedom of the press, Torrero, an individual of this class, had distinguished himself by a most eloquent speech in support of the measure.

The conduct of the supreme junta respecting America had not been marked either by wisdom or justice. Soon after the commencement of the war between Spain and Great Britain, at the close of the year 1804, the celebrated general Miranda, an American by birth, had applied to the British government for an armed force which might both induce and enable the Spanish colonies in South America to emancipate themselves from the dominion of the mother-country. But not meeting with encouragement in England, he embarked for the United States; and by great exertion succeeded in fitting out a small armament from

New York. From hence he proceeded with some hundreds of his adventurous followers to the province of the Caraccas, where he erected the standard of independence; but no symptoms appearing of that enthusiasm which he expected, he was soon compelled to retire to Trinidad.

On the French invasion of Spain in 1808, all the Spanish provinces in America had proclaimed Ferdinand VII. with zeal and unanimity. At Buenos Ayres only a French agent was received by governor Linieres, who exhorted the people to imitate the example of their forefathers during the war of the succession, by awaiting the fate of the mother-country: but this temporizing policy was counteracted by the spirit of the inhabitants. As the affairs of Spain, however, soon began to wear a gloomy aspect, the Spanish American colonies were perceived to be agitated by two opposing parties; the royalists, who adhered to the government acting in the name of Ferdinand VII., and the republicans, who sought for independence on the plan of the United States. The latter gained ground in proportion to the progress of the French army; and on the 19th April 1810, the flourishing province of the Caraccas, with the surrounding districts, formed a union, under the name of the Republic of Venezuela; and general Miranda was invited to take the command of their forces. Solicitous to ascertain the sentiments of the British government, application was made for that purpose; and a public declaration of his Majesty's intentions was communicated by



the earl of Liverpool, in a letter dated 29th of June 1810, stating, "that his Majesty must discourage every step tending to separate the Spanish provinces in America from the mother-country; but if Spain should be compelled to submit to the yoke of France, he should feel it his duty to afford every assistance to these provinces, in rendering them independent of *French Spain*." But the supreme junta, even when besieged in the Isle of Leon, maintained the haughty language of sovereignty, and treated the republic of Venezuela as in a state of rebellion.

"The ruler of France was at this time in the zenith of his greatness and glory. All the nations of the continent, except Spain and Portugal, were either his allies or his obsequious vassals. Proceeding in his plan of annexation, by which he proceeded to round his "*Empire of the West*," he now took within his grasp the Seven Dutch Provinces, of which he had recently made his brother Louis the king. They had indeed been a mere dependency of "*the great nation*" from that period; but in the preceding December an intimation had been given, of rendering them a component part of the French empire, to which it was pleaded they naturally belonged, as being no more than an *alluvion* of the Rhine, the Maese, and the Scheldt. Forty thousand French soldiers were, therefore, gradually but unceremoniously introduced into Holland, and troops were quartered at the mouths of the rivers, accompanied by French custom-house officers, in order to prevent

all commerce with England. On the 29th of June notice was given to king Louis, that the emperor insisted on the occupation of Amsterdam, which was to be made the head-quarters of the French. Louis, justly regarding himself as no longer king, resigned that nominal dignity in favour of his sons, and declared his queen regent.

On the day of his abdication he published a farewell address to the legislative body, in which he stated the circumstances that had rendered it necessary for him to sign a treaty with his brother, the emperor, whereby he had been deprived of all authority; and he advised them to receive the French with all cordiality and respect. He expressed a warm affection for his late subjects; and indeed his conduct during his short reign had been such as to manifest himself the real friend of the people upon whom he had been arbitrarily imposed, and was too much a Dutchman to retain the favour of the emperor of France. His act of abdication was considered as being of no validity, not having been previously concerted with the emperor; and the Seven Provinces were inseparably annexed to the French empire.

The Valais of Piedmont were also annexed to France, for the purpose of securing the passage of the Alps by the Simplon; and possession was taken of the Hanse towns, and of the whole course from the Elbe to the Ems,—commanded, it was said, by circumstances. The electorate of Hanover was annexed to the kingdom of Westphalia, and its very name was abolished; and to that country,

and all the other dependent kingdoms, the conscription laws were extended. In France, the chains of despotic power were rivetted by spies, arbitrary imprisonments, a rigorous police, and restrictions on the liberty of the press; and while the glory of the nation was raised to the highest pitch, all vestiges of its freedom were obliterated.

A singular event took place this year in Sweden, and it may be ranked among the most extraordinary occurrences in European history. On the 29th of May the prince of Augustenburg, presumptive heir to the crown of Sweden, died suddenly; and in August a diet was assembled at Orebro, to fill the vacancy.

In consequence of a strong letter of recommendation from the emperor Napoleon, the king of Sweden proposed marshal Bernadotte as the person on whom he wished the choice to fall. This celebrated general, who was of Protestant extraction, had for a considerable time been placed at the head of the army of occupation in the electorate of Hanover, where the equity and moderation of his conduct had equalled the reputation of his talents. The king's nomination, therefore, was unanimously approved; and on the 1st of November Bernadotte was installed in due form. Upon this occasion he addressed an admirable speech to the diet, expressing in unaffected language his sincere gratitude for the high and unexpected honour conferred upon him, with his unfeigned wishes that the reigning monarch would long afford him the advantage of

learning from his conduct the arduous and important lesson of government. "Sound policy," said he, "must have for its basis justice and truth. Such are the principles of the king; they shall also be mine. I have had a near view of war, and its ravages; and I know that there is no conquest which can console a country for the blood of its children shed in a foreign land. Sweden has sustained great losses, but her honour is without taint. Let us submit to the decrees of Providence, and recollect that we possess a soil sufficient for our wants, and a sword to defend it." In the ensuing month a declaration of hostility against Great Britain was issued. The pacific inclination of the court of Stockholm was, however, sufficiently apparent; and the war, to the disappointment of Napoleon, proved little more than nominal. The enmity of Denmark was, indeed, real and great; but her power was circumscribed: and in the course of the summer a British squadron took possession of the Danish isle of Anholt, situated in the sea called the Categat.

In the beginning of July, Murat, the new king of Naples, collected on the Calabrian coast a powerful armament both by land and sea, for the purpose of invading Sicily. The British commander, sir John Stuart, made the best preparations for resisting the threatened attack, disposing all his troops in a line along the shore, with a chain of communications, and guarding the whole coast by batteries and gun-boats. In

the narrowest parts of the straits a constant firing was kept up on both sides, which was rather a spectacle than a serious conflict; but in repeated attacks on the Neapolitan flotilla, a number of vessels were taken, destroyed, or dispersed. On the 18th of September, a debarkation of 3,500 Neapolitans and Corsicans was effected near the Faro; but two British regiments took 900 of them prisoners, and forced the rest to retreat to their gun-boats. On the 2d of October Murat proclaimed the expedition to Sicily adjourned, the experiment having sufficiently proved that the enemy's flotillas could not obstruct the passage, when seriously attempted.

The sanguinary contest between Russia and Turkey was carried on this year, on the banks of the Danube, with no other apparent object than mutual destruction. The Russians under marshal Kutusoff reduced several fortresses on the right bank of the Danube, and appeared to threaten Romania; but the grand vizier, at the head of an immense army, took a strong position in front of Adrianople. The grand seignor himself, leaving Constantinople, displayed the standard of Mahomet at the head of a second army near that capital. The province of Servia was, nevertheless, still in a state of successful revolt against the Turkish government, which was also assailed in Syria by the insurrection of the Wahabees,—a fanatical sect, who well knew the use of the sword, and were enemies alike to both the cross and the crescent. Upon the whole, symptoms

of internal debility, such as usually precede the fall of empires, were every-where visible throughout the Turkish dominions.

The isles of Bourbon and France, in the Indian Ocean, which had so long been a great annoyance to our East India trade, were this year brought under the dominion of Great Britain. Lord Minto, governor-general of India, having laid the plan for their reduction, a body of Europeans and Sepoys, about 1600 of each, sailed from Madras, and being joined by about 1000 more from the island of Rodriguez, the whole under the command of lieutenant-colonel Keating, with a fleet of men-of-war and transports, the expedition arrived early in July off the island of Bourbon. Dispositions were made for an attack on the principal town, St Denis, but it was prevented, on the 8th, by an offer to capitulate on honourable terms, which were granted. The other town, St Paul, was taken possession of on the 10th, and the whole island submitted.

In the month of November a body of troops, consisting of 8,000 or 10,000 from India and the Cape of Good Hope, commanded by major-general sir John Abercrombie, and a fleet under admiral Bertie, rendezvoused at the Mauritius, or Isle of France, and on the 29th the troops effected a landing. Some skirmishing occurred till the artillery was landed, and preparations were made to attack the forts; when, on the 3d of December, a capitulation was proposed on the part of the French, and was signed on the same

day. By its terms the island, with a vast quantity of stores and merchandise, five large frigates, and some smaller ships of war, twenty-eight merchantmen, and two captured English East India-men, were surrendered. The garrison was to be sent to France, and to be at their own disposal. This was the most valuable of the remaining French possessions to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. Three frigates were afterwards dispatched to destroy the French batteries at Tameteva, on the coast of Madagascar, and to root them out from some other small nesting places; which being effected, there was not left to France, at the beginning of the following year, a slip of land in either Indies, nor a ship on the Indian Ocean.

In the same quarter of the world farther conquests were also made upon the Dutch, the perpetual sufferers in the quarrels between France and England. On the 17th of February, the Dutch settlement of Amboyna, with its dependent islands, was surrendered to a British force from Madras. A party of seamen, commanded by captain Cole of the Carolina frigate, having on the 8th of August carried a fort upon Banda Neira, the whole island of Banda, the principal of the Spice Islands, with its dependencies, though protected by 700 regular troops and 300 militia, surrendered unconditionally, and afforded a rich prize to the captors.

To counterbalance this series of successes on the part of the British arms, the following cir-

cumstance must be placed in the reverse. Four English frigates, the *Sirius*, *Magicienne*, *Nereide*, and *Iphigenia*, on the Cape of Good Hope station, undertook in August to attack the harbour of Sud-Est in the Isle of France, opposite the Isle of Passe, into which three French frigates had carried two Indiamen, their prizes. The *Sirius* and *Magicienne* unfortunately ran aground upon shoals not known to their pilots, and were burnt by their crews. The *Nereide*, having stood in nearer to the inner harbour, was also stranded, and though exposed to the fire of the enemy's frigates and the batteries on shore, was not surrendered by its brave captain, Willoughby, till every man on board was either killed or wounded. The *Iphigenia*, closely blockaded in the Isle of Passe, was afterwards taken, together with the island.

The differences between the governments of Great Britain and the United States of America still remained unadjusted. On the recall of Mr Erskine, Mr Jackson had been sent to succeed him, as already mentioned, as minister in America, where he found the government and public in a state of irritation against this country, on account of the disavowal of the agreement entered into by Mr Erskine. The firm and unyielding tone taken by Mr Jackson in his negotiations further contributed to render him unacceptable; and the American resident in London was instructed to demand his recall, which was complied with, but without the least intimation of displea-



sure at his conduct on the part of his Majesty. The American congress having passed an act on the 1st of May, providing, that if either Great Britain or France should modify its edicts, so as that they should cease to violate the neutral commerce of the United States, and if the other nation should not within three months thereafter do the same, the restriction of intercourse should cease with regard to the first nation, but remain in force with regard to the second,—President Madison issued a proclamation on the 2d of November, declaring that the French edicts had been revoked, and that therefore from that time the restrictions were abrogated with regard to France. Mr Gallatin, treasurer of the States, on the same day sent letters to the different collectors of the customs, announcing the abolition of the restrictions with regard to France, but declaring that they would be revived in full force with regard to Great Britain on the ensuing 2d day of February, should she not in like manner have revoked her hostile decrees. And by a second letter he gave his opinion, that in the case above-mentioned, all British goods arriving subsequently to 2d February would be forfeited. In this unpromising state the contest between Great Britain and America was left at the close of the year 1810.

The close of the fiftieth year of the reign of king George III. had been celebrated in the metropolis as a sort of second jubilee. The king's health, for his advanced period of life,

was remarkably good ; but he had for some time suffered under a heavy domestic affliction, caused by the dangerous, and, as it proved, fatal illness of his youngest daughter, the princess Amelia. On one of his daily visits to this his favourite and beloved child, a short time before her decease, she placed a ring on his finger enclosing a lock of her hair, as a farewell token. The agitated and anxious mind of the king sunk beneath the shock ; nor was he afterwards found capable of transacting business. The princess expired on the 2d of November 1810. The parliament had been prorogued to the 1st of that month, and a commission prepared by the lord-chancellor, under an order in council, for a further prorogation to the 29th ; but as the sign-manual was wanting, the two houses met on the day previously fixed.

The illness and inability of the king to open the session being announced, an adjournment of a fortnight was unanimously agreed to ; and the members of both houses were summoned for the 15th. This was followed by a second adjournment to the 29th, and again by a third to the 13th day of December. The physicians, on examination before the lords of council, and afterwards before a committee of both houses, accorded in their firm belief of his Majesty's recovery ; grounding this expectation on the general state of his health, and the encouraging precedents of 1788, 1801, and 1804. At length Mr Percival, adopting the mode of procedure of 1788-9,

moved three resolutions, affirming, 1st, The incapacity of the king; 2d, The right of the two houses to provide the means of supplying the defect; 3d, The necessity of determining upon the means of giving the royal assent to a bill for that purpose. The opposition, waving altogether the question respecting the right of the prince of Wales to the regency, merely proposed that the prince be addressed to take upon him the executive duties. This was negatived in the house of peers by 100 to 74, and in the commons by 269 to 157 voices.

The resolutions moved by Mr Percival having been carried by great majorities, that minister apprised the prince, by letter, of the restrictions he meant to propose; and, in a brief reply, the prince referred to the celebrated letter which he addressed to Mr Pitt in 1789. The other members of the royal family also transmitted to Mr Percival their unavailing protest against the restrictions, as being wholly unconstitutional. The grand division on the question of restrictions was carried, on the 31st of December, in favour of ministers, by 224 to 200 voices. The regency finally passed into an act on 5th February 1811. The restrictions were to remain in force to the 1st of February 1812, and then to expire, provided the parliament had at that time been sitting six weeks. An amendment moved by lord Grenville, limiting their duration to the 1st of August 1811, was negatived by 139 to 122 peers. The restoration of the king was provided for by a

simple notification to the privy-council, by the queen and her assistant counsellors, viz. the two archbishops, the lord-chancellor, the lord chief-justice, the master of the rolls, the duke of Montrose, and the earls of Winchelsea and Aylesford.

From the avowed sentiments and predilections of the prince, it was generally expected that a total change of administration would take place at the commencement of the regency. And the regent himself, in a letter to Mr Percival announcing his intention of continuing the present ministers in office, explicitly stated, that duty and affection for his beloved and afflicted parent made him unwilling to do a single act which might retard his recovery; and that this consideration *alone* had dictated his decision; adding, that his Majesty's restoration to health would rescue him from a situation of unexampled embarrassment. So strong, indeed, were the prepossessions at this period respecting the king's recovery, that the leaders of opposition themselves were believed to be indifferent, if not averse, to the acceptance of office, at the hazard of being dismissed at the end of a few weeks or months.

## CHAPTER VII.

1811.

THE regency parliament was opened by commission on the 12th of February 1811, and the first subject of importance that was brought before the two houses related to a measure adopted by the government in Ireland respecting the catholics of that country. This numerous class of subjects had long been intent upon the means of obtaining that restitution to the full rights of citizens which they considered as their due; and a plan was adopted, at least by the greater part of them, of forming in Dublin a standing delegation, consisting of ten persons elected from each county, charged with the management of their affairs, not only for the purpose of petitioning, but for the redress of the general grievances under which they laboured.

This kind of organization gave an alarm to government, and produced a circular letter from Mr Wellesley Pole, secretary to the lord-lieutenant, the duke of Richmond, addressed to the sheriffs and chief magistrates of all the counties in Ireland. After stating the report, that the catholics of the county in which the person resided to whom the letter was addressed, were to be or had been called together to appoint delegates to an unlawful assembly in Dublin, styling itself the Catholic Com-

mittee, the writer, in the name of the lord-lieutenant, required him, in pursuance of an act of the 33d of the king, to cause to be arrested and committed to prison, unless bail should be given, all persons within his jurisdiction guilty of having been in any way concerned in issuing notices for such election or appointment, or of having attended meetings for such purpose.

The intelligence of this proceeding excited much surprise and alarm in England; and on the 18th of February the earl of Moira brought the matter before the house of lords. After some observations on the letter, his lordship put the question to ministers, whether the measure had been settled by them before Mr Pole's departure for Ireland? The earl of Liverpool replied that they knew nothing of the matter until the news arrived, but that it was accompanied with reasons for the procedure which justified it; and lord Moira having moved that the letter should be laid on the table, lord Liverpool moved for a copy of the letter of the secretary of the catholic committee, both of which motions were agreed to.

The subject was introduced in a similar manner into the house of commons by Mr Ponsonby, when Mr Percival made the same assertion of the previous ignorance of the ministers relative to the measure. In both houses motions were made by the opposition for the production of copies of all the dispatches to and from the lord-lieutenant relating to this affair, which were negatived. Mr Pole having arrived from Ireland during these discus-

sions, and appearing in his place in the house of commons on March 3d, Mr Ponsonby moved for copies of various papers and documents, which drew from the secretary a particular explanation of the whole transaction. His principal object was to shew in what respect the proceedings of the catholic committee of 1809, which had not been interfered with, differed from those which had produced this act of government: and he stated, that in the former case they had confined their deliberations to petitioning, without attempting any thing like delegation; whereas in the latter they had come to a resolution of appointing delegates to manage, not the petition, but the *catholic affairs*; and that a committee of grievances sat weekly, and imitated all the forms of the house of commons.

In answer to a question from Mr Ponsonby, whether the law officers had been consulted on the occasion, he affirmed that the lord-lieutenant had taken the opinions of the lord-chancellor and the attorney and solicitor-general, and that the latter had drawn up the letter issued by himself. In conclusion, Mr Ponsonby's motion was negatived by 133 against 46 votes. The topic was again agitated in the house of lords on a motion from earl Stanhope, when the letter was attacked chiefly on the ground of its illegality, as being unauthorized either by the common law or the act to which it referred. The lord-chancellor, in defending the measure generally, confessed that its language did appear to him to be put together

in a loose and careless manner. The division, however, was in favour of the ministers by 21 against 6; and thus terminated the parliamentary proceedings respecting this memorable letter.

Before we dismiss the topic, however, it may not be amiss to notice some circumstances which occurred in Ireland in consequence of the resolution adopted by government. On the 23d of February two magistrates of Dublin, by order of the lord-lieutenant, repaired to a house at which the catholic committee was accustomed to assemble, and were shewn to a room in which were a number of gentlemen, some of them in the act of signing the petition of the catholics to parliament. Lord French, who was called to the chair, demanded of the magistrates by what authority they came there; and was answered, that understanding it to be a meeting of the catholic committee, they came by order of the government to order it to disperse. A conversation followed, which terminated with the departure of one of the magistrates to consult Mr Pole. On his return he said, that as lord French had assured him that the meeting was only of catholic gentlemen for the purpose of signing and forwarding a petition to parliament, and not of the catholic committee, it was not the order of government that they should be interrupted. The petition was afterwards drawn up and presented; and its fate in parliament is now to be mentioned.

The catholic petition was presented to the house of commons by Mr Grattan on the 20th May;



and on the 31st he moved that the same should be read, and also the votes of the house conveying thanks to the armies under lord Wellington and general Graham, in which were many Irish catholics. From these documents he took his ground, to shew that there was nothing in the Roman catholic religion itself which encouraged disaffection, but that the manner in which the catholics had been treated by government was the true cause of their discontents. After enlarging with great force on these heads, he concluded with moving that the petition be referred to a committee of the whole house. The motion was ably supported by other speakers; and, on the other hand, it was opposed on the grounds of a supposed inherent principle of intolerance in the religion of Rome, of the apprehension that the catholics would still be rising in their demands, and of danger to the Protestant establishment should their claims be allowed. On a division, there appeared for the motion 83, against it 146.

Lord Donoughmore introduced the petition into the house of lords on the 18th June, when he moved for referring it to a committee. In the debate which followed, the same arguments were urged on each side which had been brought forward in the other house. It was chiefly remarkable for a reference to the opinions of Mr Pitt on the subject; lord Redesdale and the lord-chancellor affirming, that in their conversations with him it appeared that he had no safeguards to propose for the effectual security of the Protestant religion

if the catholic claims were granted; whence an inference might be made, that he had other motives besides the refusal of these for quitting the ministry ; whilst earl Spencer and lord Grenville rose to defend his memory from such an imputation of duplicity. The division on the motion gave, contents 62, non-contents 121.

The Irish catholics were too zealous and confident in their cause to regard their parliamentary defeat as a reason for renouncing their plans ; and the summer was actively employed in meetings for the nomination of delegates, several of which were attended by Protestant gentlemen, who regarded catholic emancipation as a branch of the general liberty of Ireland. On the other hand, government resolved not to submit passively to the violation of its injunctions. An aggregate meeting being held at Dublin, July 9th, for the appointment of delegates to the general committee of catholics, five persons were apprehended by a warrant from the lord chief-justice for a breach of the convention act ; one of whom, Dr Sheridan, was put upon his trial before the court of King's-bench in Dublin. Either from some defect in the evidence, or from a difference of opinion concerning the nature of the imputed crime from that given by the judge in his charge, the jury brought in a verdict of *not guilty*, which was received with enthusiastic applause by a crowded audience ; and the attorney-general declined proceeding to try the other persons implicated in the same offence.

A new committee of delegates being at length completely formed, it assembled October 19th, to the number of nearly 300, at the theatre in Fishamble street, lord Fingal in the chair. A petition to parliament was read and unanimously approved; and the whole business of the meeting was dispatched in so short a time, that the police magistrates came too late to disperse it as an unlawful assembly. The same committee met again on the 23d of December, when it was formally dispersed by a magistrate; and on the same day a number of the members assembling at a tavern as private gentlemen, signed a requisition for an aggregate meeting of the catholics. On the 26th the aggregate meeting was held, when a set of resolutions were passed, strongly censuring the proceedings of the Irish government, and expressing a determination not to submit in silence to the perversion of laws and the abuse of power, which was asserted to have been manifested. It was also resolved to present an humble address to the Prince Regent, as soon as the restrictions on his authority should cease. Another resolution passed for requesting a general committee of catholics to be held in Dublin in the ensuing February.

Reverting to the parliamentary transactions of the session, the next remarkable occurrence was an attack in the house of commons on the lord-chancellor. In the debates relating to the regency bill in the house of lords, earl Grey had taken notice of the circumstance of the king's having

been suffered to perform some of the functions of royalty in 1804, at a time when his mental malady still rendered him an object of medical control; and a censure of lord Eldon had been incidentally moved on that account, but it was negatived. The subject was again brought forward by Mr Whitbread on the 25th February, who prefaced a motion in reference to it by stating the facts of the case. The malady of the king, he said, was announced to the public on the 15th February 1804, and bulletins continued to be issued till March 22d, but it was not till April 23d. that his entire recovery was declared by a personal attendance at a council: yet on the 6th of March lord Eldon mentioned in the house of lords that he had been with the king on the 4th and 5th of that month, and having explained to him the nature of a bill then pending for alienating certain crown lands in favour of the duke of York, his Majesty had commanded him to signify his consent to that bill. On the 9th of March a commission signed by the king was issued, and lord Eldon being asked whether he had personal knowledge of the state of the king's health, he declared he was aware of what he was doing, and would take upon himself all the responsibility. Lord Sidmouth also, on the 26th of March, brought down a message from the king.

On these facts, Mr Whitbread founded a motion for a committee to examine the lords' journals for the evidence of the physicians respecting his Majesty's health in 1804, and to report the

same to the house. Lord Castlereagh rose in defence of the chancellor, at the same time declaring his readiness to share the responsibility of the transaction referred to. The defence turned upon the unanimous declaration of the physicians as to the king's competency to transact business on February 27th, though none was submitted to him till March 5th. On the 9th it was necessary to obtain his sign-manual to the mutiny act, which could not be deferred without danger. In these and other instances the physicians had sanctioned the application to him. Mr Whitbread, in reply, pledged himself to make out the whole charge, if opportunity were given him of cross-examining the physicians. His motion, however, was negatived by 198 against 81. The public impression relative to this subject was, that although there was no reason to suppose that the royal assent had been affixed to any measure not of itself proper, yet that the king had been made to exercise his functions at a time when he was not possessed of a distinguishing judgment or free agency, and that it would be highly expedient to prevent any future recurrence of the like kind.

The operation of the Berlin and Milan decrees, enforced as they were by the orders in council, had now produced the most fatal consequences to the mercantile interest. The loan for the last year had sustained a ruinous depreciation; and the foreign demand for British manufactures being greatly reduced, numerous failures were the inevitable and melancholy result. A select committee

was appointed to inquire into the state of commercial credit, who recommended as a temporary expedient an issue of exchequer bills, to the amount of £.6,000,000, for the relief of such persons as could give satisfactory security for the repayment of the several sums advanced. But as this could be done by comparatively few, no extensive benefit was afforded. For the current service, £.12,000,000 were borrowed for Great Britain and Ireland, and £.12,000,000 of exchequer bills were funded. A vote of credit also passed for £.3,000,000. Bank of England notes being at this time at a discount of 20 to 30 per cent. in exchange for gold coin, an act now passed by which no person could be held to bail for any debt who tendered bank of England notes in payment, or execution entered for rent; also making it penal to take bank of England notes at a value less than they nominally bore. To such evils, and to such strange and dangerous remedies for those evils, was the country now exposed and reduced. It has been mentioned that the Regent, considering himself as the possessor of only a restricted and temporary authority, declined taking any part in public transactions, and allowed the ministers whom he found in office to pursue their own plans without interference. Yet one act, which soon followed his accession to power, was certainly regarded as a spontaneous exertion on his part; this was the reappointment of the duke of York to the office of commander-in-chief of the army. As his resignation had appeared to

give general satisfaction, this measure excited considerable surprise ; and some of the members of the house of commons, who had stood forward in the charges which had been the cause of the duke's resignation, could not but feel the act of his reappointment as conveying an imputation on their conduct, as well as a stigma on the house itself.

Under this impression, lord Milton, on the 6th June, after various observations relative to the past transaction, in which his object was to shew, that, if his royal highness had not voluntarily resigned, the house was prepared to come to some resolution which would have rendered that event necessary, moved the following resolution :—  
“ That upon a deliberate consideration of the recent circumstances under which the duke of York retired from the army in March 1809, it appears to the house that it has been highly improper and indecorous in the advisers of the Prince Regent to have recommended to his royal highness the reappointment of the duke of York to the office of commander-in-chief.”

The chancellor of the exchequer fully acknowledged the responsibility of ministers for the measure in question, but contended, that when sir David Dundas had expressed a wish to retire, they could have no doubt or hesitation as to whom they should recommend to supply the vacancy, the duke of York's eminent services to the army leaving them no choice ; and no vote had passed the house to preclude his future res-

totation. It appears that a considerable change had by this time taken place in the minds of the majority of the members relative to this matter, as the votes against it, on a division, were 296 to 47. Calm reflection had now succeeded to passionate exaggeration; and the country at large thought that sufficient atonement had been made by the mortifying exposure that had taken place, and the two years' submissive retirement from office. The duke consequently resumed his situation.

The practice of flogging, as a military punishment, had been severely censured both in parliament and from the press; and the impression these exposures of it had produced upon the public, and especially upon the soldiery, was so displeasing to the government, that prosecutions had been instituted against some writers who had expressed themselves with the greatest freedom on the subject. The facts and reasonings which had been produced, however, probably operated upon the minds of the ministers themselves; for while the mutiny bill was passing through the house of commons, Mr Manners Sutton moved the addition of a clause to give a power to courts-martial of inflicting the punishment of imprisonment in the place of corporal punishment, when they should judge proper; which was adopted with universal consent.

The measure of an interchange of the militias of Great Britain and Ireland was introduced into the house of commons, on the 17th of May, by



Mr secretary Ryder, who moved for a bill to invest the crown with a power to that effect. By a clause of this bill, Irish catholics serving in England were entitled to all the civil, military, and religious exemptions which they possessed in Ireland. This, in fact, was the equitable measure in relation to which the fanatical cry of "No Popery" had been raised against the late ministers. The bill passed, and the interchange was soon extensively put in practice.

At an advanced period of the session, lord Sidmouth moved for leave to bring in a bill for amending and explaining the provision of the toleration act, as far as it applied to protestant dissenters. In opening his purpose, it appeared to be that of diminishing the number of licensed non-conforming preachers of the lower class, who from their popularity were the most formidable rivals to the clergy of the established church. The provisions of the proposed bill, therefore, went to render necessary such an apparatus of testimonials and recommendations for entitling an applicant to a license for preaching, as would obviously exclude many of the most illiterate and disqualified; an object apparently favourable to the respectability of the sects, as well as salutary to the cause of public instruction; and in that view it was at first approved by some of the dissenters themselves. On a closer consideration, however, the control and restriction authorized by it appeared so adverse to the principles of toleration, that an alarm was excited which pro-

duced a more universal union among the separatists, in opposition to the measure, than was ever before known. The number of petitions against the bill from all parts of the kingdom, and from all classes of dissenters, astonished and appalled the house; and the mover was left to contend with the storm alone. Happily and wisely, on the second reading, this very obnoxious bill was postponed to a distant day.

Parliament was prorogued on the 24th July, with a speech in the Prince Regent's name, delivered by commission, in which great satisfaction was expressed with all the measures of the session; in particular, with the wisdom and firmness manifested in enabling government to continue the exertions of the country in the cause of its allies, and to prosecute the war with increased activity and vigour.

The peninsula of Spain and Portugal still continued the grand theatre on which the contest for the liberties of Europe was maintained; and it was carried on with vigour, and with various success. The campaign commenced at a very early season of the year. On the 2d of January the French marshal Suchet made himself master of Tortosa, a place which might have held out much longer, as its situation near the mouth of the Ebro afforded it an opportunity of receiving supplies. On the 23d of January marshal Soult took possession of Olivenza; and on the same day Spain sustained a great loss in the death of the marquis de Romana, who expired suddenly

at his head-quarters at Cartaxo. Within less than a month from the time of his death, general Mendizabel, who had succeeded to the command of his corps, was defeated by Soult with great loss.

But the success of the French arms soon afterwards received a check on the heights of Barossa, near the Isle of Leon. During the whole of the preceding year marshal Victor had been occupied in the siege of Cadiz, but without effect, and even without any rational prospect of its reduction, as its peninsular situation, joined by a long and narrow isthmus to the continent, rendered it inaccessible to an enemy that had not a fleet to attack it from the sea; and the width of the harbour secured it in a great measure from sustaining any material injury by a cannonade or bombardment from the opposite shores.

On the 25th of February an armament was sent out from Cadiz, under the command of lieutenant-general sir Thomas Graham, who disembarked a body of English, Spaniards, and Portuguese, at Algesiras. The object of the expedition was to attack the French who were employed in the siege; and the landing being effected on the 28th, the allied army arrived, on the morning of the 5th of March, on the ridge of Barossa, about four miles to the southward of the river of Santi Petri. The ridge extends inland about a mile and a half, continuing on the north to the wide and healthy plain of Chiclana. A large forest of pines skirting the plain, and encircling the height at some distance, terminated the river, the inter-

mediate space, between the north side of the height and the forest, being uneven and broken ground.

In this situation lieutenant-general Graham, and the Spanish general Las Penas, found it necessary to attack the French army commanded by marshal Victor, consisting of about 8000 men, formed in two divisions, and in a high state of discipline and equipment. The allied force scarcely amounted to 6000 men, of whom about one-half were English. Nothing less than the greatest exertions and the most determined bravery could stand against an enemy so superior in numbers, so experienced in the art of war, and occupying so advantageous a position.

In the commencement of the action, a well conducted and vigorous attack on the rear of the enemy's lines, near Santi Petri, by the vanguard of the Spaniards under brigadier-general Ladri-zabel, opened the communication with the Isle de Leon. This being effected, general Graham moved down from the position of Barossa to the Torre de Bermesa, about half the distance to Santi Petri, in order to secure a communication across that river, over which a bridge had been recently constructed. While making this movement he received intelligence that the enemy had appeared in force on the plain of Chiclana, and was advancing towards the heights of Barossa. In consequence of this information, considering these heights as the key to Santi Petri, he immediately made a counter-march, in order to support

the troops left for their defence. But before this corps could completely extricate itself from the wood, the troops on the ridge of Barossa were observed to be retiring, while the left wing of the French was rapidly ascending, their right being posted on the plain at the edge of the wood.

A retreat in the face of an enemy so superior in force, would have exposed the allies to great danger. General Graham, therefore, relying on the courage of his troops, and regardless of the numbers and advantageous position of the enemy, resolved on a general and immediate attack. On the 5th of March, a battery of ten pieces of cannon, under the direction of major Duncan, opened on the enemy's centre. Brigadier-general Dilkes, with the brigade of guards, lieutenant-colonel Brown's battalion, lieutenant-colonel Norcott's two companies of the 2d rifle corps, and major Acheson with a part of the 67th foot, separated from the regiment in the wood, formed on the right; colonel Wheatley's brigade, with three companies of the Coldstream guards under lieutenant-colonel Jackson, separated likewise from his battalion in the wood, and lieutenant-colonel Barnard's flank battalion formed on the left.

The infantry being thus hastily arranged, the artillery advanced to a more formidable position, and kept up a heavy and well-directed fire. The right of the allies attacked general Rufin's division on the heights, while lieutenant-colonel Barnard's battalion and a detachment of Portuguese were engaged with the enemy's *tirailleurs*. But

general Laval's division, notwithstanding the havoc made by major Duncan's battery, advanced in imposing masses, and opened a destructive fire of musketry. The left wing of the allies now advanced, keeping up a constant fire; and a most determined charge of the 67th regiment and the three companies of guards, supported by all the rest of the wing, decided the fate of general Laval's division. The eagle of one of the regiments of light infantry was taken by major Gough.

The right wing of the allies was equally successful. The French met brigadier-general Dilkes on the ascent of the ridge, and the conflict was obstinate; but the undaunted bravery and steady perseverance of the British troops surmounted every obstacle, and general Rufin's division being driven from the heights, left behind two pieces of artillery. In less than an hour and a half from the commencement of the action the enemy began to retreat; but the exhausted state of the allies prevented any pursuit. The French lost, on this occasion, about 3000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners, with one eagle, six pieces of cannon, their ammunition waggons, and a number of horses. General Bellegarde, chief of the staff, an aide-du-camp of marshal Victor, and several other officers, were killed, and many were wounded and taken prisoners, among whom were the general of division Rufin, who soon after died of his wounds. The loss of the allies amounted to about 1240 killed and wounded; and among these were

a number of excellent officers. Of all the actions that had then taken place in the Peninsula, this was one of the most glorious to the British arms; but it was productive of little advantage. General Graham had gained a brilliant victory, but finding it impossible to procure supplies, he withdrew the next day across the Santi Petri, and afterwards returned to Cadiz.

About the same time that the British arms were so successful on the heights of Barossa, marshal Massena commenced his retreat from Santarem, where he had never been able to attack lord Wellington with any prospect of success. Scarcity of provisions at length obliged him to retire. Behind him he had only a barren and exhausted country, with a hostile population, circumstances which greatly distressed his army. The British general, having the Tagus on his right and Lisbon in his rear, was in a commanding position which ensured ample supplies. Massena, in retreating through Portugal towards the frontier, was closely followed by lord Wellington, whose van attacked the rear of the French, on the 11th of March, and gained a considerable advantage. But this success was more than counterbalanced by the loss of Badajoz, which surrendered on the same day to the duke of Dalmatia, after a vigorous resistance.

Massena on entering Portugal had boasted of his determination to plant his eagles on the forts of Lisbon; but his retreat from Santarem, where he left behind him part of his heavy artillery, was

doubtless a very mortifying event to him; and his retreat, though conducted with great military skill, is said to have been also distinguished "by barbarities rarely equalled, and never surpassed." Lord Wellington accused him of acts of cruelty and wanton mischief, which would disgrace a horde of barbarians. In the haste of retreat the French army abandoned their wounded, and destroyed most of their baggage and other encumbrances. They retained till the close of March a strong post at Guarda, whence, on the approach of the allied army, they retired to Sabugal on the Coa. Their position on that river was, on the 3d of April, attacked by the allies in force, and carried after a sharp action. On the following day the French army entered Spain, and continued its retreat across the Agueda.

Lord Wellington now made arrangements for the blockade of Almeida, and employed the interval of active operations in a visit to the corps under the command of marshal Beresford in Spanish Estremadura, consisting of an united force of British and Portuguese. After repulsing an attack from the French on the 7th of April near Olivença, he took a position whence he could invest that place and Badajoz. Olivença surrendered to the marshal on the 15th; and lord Wellington having had an interview with him, during which they established the blockade of Badajoz, returned to his army.

On the 15th of April the fortress of Olivença surrendered to the allied arms; and it was now



determined to lay siege to Badajoz, the operations of which were carried on with vigour until the 12th May, when the readvance of marshal Soult was announced by general Blake, who joined the army with a body of troops from Cadiz. At a council of war then held, the three commanders resolved to give battle to the enemy. With this view the siege of Badajoz was raised, and the army took a strong position fronting the banks of the Albuera, and extending to the village of that name, on the summit of a gradual ascent from the river.

Early on the morning of the 16th of May, the French passed the stream in great force, designing to attack the Spaniards posted under general Blake on the right, and to turn the wing of the allies. After an obstinate resistance the enemy gained the heights, which commanded the whole position. But while the most strenuous efforts were making to dislodge them, and the English brigades, headed by general Stewart, were actually charging with fixed bayonets, they were themselves charged by a body of Polish cavalry lancers in the rear, who did terrible execution. At this critical moment, however, sir Lowry Cole bringing up the reserve, the enemy were driven from the heights with great slaughter. Their attack on the village and the bridge in the centre was likewise successfully repelled by baron Alten of the German legion, which, with the division of general Hamilton, defended that post; and the whole French army, after six hours' fighting,

repassed the Albuera with some precipitation, but could not be pursued owing to the great deficiency of the allies in cavalry. "Never," says marshal Beresford, "did troops more gloriously maintain the honour of their respective countries." General Stewart refused, after being twice wounded, to quit the field. General Houghton, leading his brigade to the charge, fell at their head. The Portuguese, under general Hamilton, evinced, according to marshal Beresford's account, the utmost steadiness and courage, and manœuvred equally well with the British. The Spanish generals Blake, Castanos, and Ballasteros, signalized their zeal and valour; and marshal Soult himself is said to have acknowledged, "that in the long course of his military service, he had never before witnessed so desperate and sanguinary a contest."

It is worthy of remark, that in this engagement no less than six different nations were at once shedding their blood in mortal combat—British, Spaniards, Portuguese, Germans, French, and Poles. The French army consisted of near 30,000; of which number 4000 at least were cavalry. The allies were superior in infantry, but their cavalry did not exceed 2000. The total loss in killed and wounded amounted to about 6000 men; that of the French must have been still greater. Before day-break on the 18th, marshal Soult began his retrograde march to Seville.

The siege of Badajoz now recommenced under the personal direction of lord Wellington. That fortress, however, was of great strength; and

the garrison, though with little prospect of relief, defended the place with extraordinary bravery. In two assaults on fort Christoval, the allies were repulsed with great slaughter. In the mean time marshal Soult was collecting a force for its relief, jointly with marshal Marmont, the successor of Massena. And on the approach of the two marshals, lord Wellington finding himself much inferior in strength, retired to the right bank of the Guadiana, from whence, after a short interval, he removed his wearied troops during the sultry heats of summer into cantonments in the Lower Beira.

Towards the close of September the British troops again took the field, threatening the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo; but before lord Wellington could complete his preparations, general Marmont assembled a vast force, amounting to 60,000 men, with the view of turning the left of his position, and either cutting off his retreat or forcing him to a battle. But his able antagonist, aware of his design, made a timely movement beyond the Coa; on which Marmont withdrew towards Salamanca. During these operations, general Hill, who had been detached from the main army, being joined by a Spanish force, on the 28th of October surprised and totally defeated a corps of the French under general Girard, at Arroyo del Molino, the enemy losing 2000 men, with their artillery and baggage.

In Spain, Catalonia was the theatre of the most active military operations at the close of the last,

and the beginning of this year. We have already noticed the capture of Tortosa by the French army under Suchet: after the reduction of that fortress, he sent a division against Fort Balaguer at the mouth of the Ebro, which carried it on the 9th of January by assault. It was next determined to undertake the siege of Tarragona; and, as a preparatory action, the whole Italian division of the French army made an attack upon the Spanish general Sarsfield, January 15. which terminated in the total defeat of the assailants with considerable loss. This check deferred for some months the siege of that city. During this interval, the fortress of Figueras was recovered by surprise by a body of Catalonians, who were admitted into the place through a stratagem of some of their countrymen whom the French had forced into their service. The whole French garrison were taken in their beds, without a shot being fired.

The principal event of the summer campaign in Spain was the siege and reduction of Tarragona. Marshal Suchet marched against this important sea-port of Catalonia about the end of April; and on the 5th of May he completed the investment of it as far as the sea. A furious assault on the 21st, after great slaughter on both sides, put the lower part of the town, which the besiegers had got access to through the capture of an outwork, in the power of the French. The garrison however still held out, till, on the 28th, a practicable breach being made, the assailants

rushed in, and almost immediately carried the place. Their fury had been roused to such a pitch by the long and sanguinary resistance that had been made, that every outrage and cruelty suffered in a town taken by storm was undergone by the people of Tarragona. Suchet, who appears not to have been unwilling that a terrible example should be given by its fate for the purpose of intimidation, related, in his account of the transaction, that 4000 persons were put to death in the city, and of 10,000 or 12,000 more, who endeavoured to escape over the walls, 1000 were sabred or drowned, and 10,000 made prisoners. The particulars given in a letter from captain Codrington of the *Blake*, are filled with still greater horrors. By this conquest, the French became possessed of the whole coast of Catalonia; and Suchet, marching into the interior of that province, dispersed the parties which the marquis of Campoverde had exerted himself to raise.

In the month of September Suchet entered the province of Valencia, and on the 27th took possession of Murviedro. He then opened trenches against its fortress, and made several attempts to carry it, which were repulsed with considerable loss. In the mean time, general Blake collected all the disposable force in that quarter for its relief. He occupied the heights above the besieging army, where on the 25th of October he was attacked, and, after a well-contested battle, was defeated with a loss, according to the French accounts, of 6,500 in killed, wounded, and prison-

ners. On the following day the fortress of Murviedro capitulated, and its garrison remained prisoners of war. Suchet then advanced with part of his army to the suburbs of the city of Valencia, and made preparations for the siege of that capital. On the 26th of November he attacked general Blake's protecting army, the cavalry of which being routed, the infantry took shelter in their intrenched camp. This was afterwards forced; and the defenders, after losing their artillery and baggage, found no other retreat but into the city itself. On the 25th of December Valencia was invested on every side; but its fall was protracted till the next year.

In the beginning of the year 1811 the Spanish Cortes issued a proclamation, declaring that they would not recognize any act of Ferdinand VII. while deprived of his liberty. In April they passed a decree abolishing the torture, and referred to a committee a motion for the abolition of the slave trade. Other proceedings of that assembly, tending to the removal of old grievances, were—the admission of plebeians as well as nobles into the military colleges; the application to the use of the military hospitals of sums destined for the use of religious fraternities; and the abolition of jurisdictional seigniories and vassalage. A principal object of their attention was the formation of a constitution; and a committee having been appointed for drawing up a plan for this purpose, two sections were read at a public sitting on the 19th of August, and ordered to be

printed. The preliminary article ran thus: "The sovereignty resides essentially in the nation, and therefore the right belongs to it, exclusively, of establishing its fundamental laws, and of adopting the form of government which it judges most suitable." It produced a long debate, the result of which was, that the first clause of the article was voted by a great majority; the second was rejected. The doctrine of the sovereignty of the nation, however, met with opposition from the royal council, which circulated a paper expressly denying it; in consequence of which the Cortes ordered a criminal information against those who concurred in that measure, and in the mean time suspended them from their functions.

The emperor Napoleon, during this year, was principally intent on his grand project of wholly excluding the British commerce from the continent of Europe, and of raising a navy which in time might contend with that of England for the dominion of the sea. On the 1st of January the annexation of the great commercial city of Hamburg to the French empire was announced by the display of the French flag, and a public proclamation. The plan of a marine conscription was, by Napoleon's order, presented to the senate, and of course received its ratification. It consisted in converting the military into a naval conscription, in the thirty maritime departments of the empire. For the purpose of recruiting the navy, youths from the age of 13 to 16 were to be selected and trained in the necessary manœuvres;

and a decree was passed for placing 10,000 conscripts of each of the classes of 1813, 1814, 1815, and 1816, at the disposal of the minister of the marine. At the same time, seamen were collected from all parts of the empire, to man the fleet at Antwerp. In the spirit of forcing even nature to conform to his will, this extraordinary person issued a decree enjoining the culture of beet-root and woad to a large extent, to supply the place of the sugar-cane and indigo plant; thus superseding the necessity of colonial importation.

An event exciting apparently universal joy throughout France, was the birth of an heir to the empire on the 20th of April 1811. He was christened in great pomp by the name of Napoleon; and upon this infant was conferred the title of "king of Rome;" thus reviving a title which had been for many ages dormant. The young potentate was welcomed with all the extravagant adulation usually bestowed on the heirs of absolute monarchy.

On the 17th of June a French national ecclesiastical council was opened at Paris in great form and state. The object of it was that of supplying the numerous vacancies in the episcopal order, which the pope's determined refusal to institute the bishops of the emperor's nomination had occasioned. It was therefore declared in the *exposé* of the state of the empire, that the concordat between France and the see of Rome no longer existed; and that the fate of episcopacy would henceforth be attached to the deliberations of the



council of Paris. But uncontrolled as the will of Napoleon was in all other matters, it appears that he found it necessary to exercise some management with respect to ecclesiastical affairs. — With a view probably to conciliate the affections of his new subjects in Holland, and to accelerate his maritime preparations, in the month of September he departed on a tour to the sea coast. At Boulogne he ordered his flotilla to make an attack on the English frigate lying off that port, which terminated only in his mortification! He proceeded to view all the works and shipping at Ostend, Flushing, and Antwerp, in which visit he is said to have found much to flatter his pride and elevate his hopes. At Amsterdam, decorated with the title of the third city of the empire, he was received with all the demonstrations of joy and attachment which are so easily procured to gratify the feelings of a present master; and, from the imperial palace of that city, he issued a series of decrees to regulate the internal government of Holland; the purpose of which, was, to assimilate its institutions in the most perfect manner with those of “the great nation” in which it was now merged. During this time, and, after his return to Paris, the emperor was actively engaged in negotiations with the northern powers, the consequences of which were soon to be manifested. The year closed with an immediate call for 120,000 conscripts of the year 1812. The humiliated court of Vienna was chiefly occupied at this time with attempts to restore its

dilapidated resources; one of the means of doing which was the sale of ecclesiastical estates, to a considerable extent. The diet of Hungary was opened in August; and in the beginning of September the emperor repaired thither, and read a paper containing the proposals of government relative to matters of revenue. Some opposition appearing, a declaration was made on the part of the emperor, that he would not allow any resistance to be made to his measures from the Hungarian states. His subserviency to the projects of his son-in-law was evinced by a note to the stadtholder of Austria, directing that a free passage and all necessary supplies should be granted to the French troops on their march through his territories.

In other parts of Germany every thing was submissive to the will of Napoleon. The duchy of Oldenburg was annexed to his northern empire without opposition, on no other plea than that of

Confederation of the Rhine. This league, the masterpiece of Napoleon's policy, was now become of vast consequence from its extent of territory and population. Its contingent of troops was fixed at 118,662 men; and this body in the autumn was taken into the pay of France, and an

army composed from it was assembling in the vicinity of Mentz.

The political state of Sweden in this year was such as scarcely to be reducible to any fixed colour or form. The leading part in the administration, taken by a Frenchman as declared successor to the crown, naturally induced the expectation that French interests would predominate, and the declaration of war against England was apparently a result of this influence; yet the war between the two countries was rather nominal than real. The war was unpopular with the Swedish nation, and the crown-prince himself began to display indications of being more swayed by the consideration of his future sovereignty, than by attachment to a former master. In March the king issued a proclamation signifying, that on account of ill health he had found it necessary for the present to withdraw from public affairs, and had transferred the royal authority to the crown-prince. A conscription of 20,000 men was now put in execution; but it was attended with insurrections among the peasantry in various parts, which were not quelled without bloodshed. Sir James Somerses, who had the command of the English fleet in the Baltic, this summer entered into a negotiation with the Swedish government relative to some detained ships with colonial produce, from which a mutual desire of being upon more amicable terms was very apparent. And the conduct of the British admiral, in not only allowing coasting vessels to pass unmolested, but giving

them protection, was highly satisfactory to the Swedish nation.

The hostility of Denmark towards England continued without abatement; and the proximity of the power of France, in consequence of the German annexations, necessarily rendered her subservient to its politics. A great proportion of the Danish seamen were allowed to enter the French service, their chief employment at home being in privateers and gun-boats against the British trade. The most considerable enterprise undertaken by the Danes during this year, was an attempt to recover the isle of Anholt from the English. On the 27th of March a Danish flotilla, with troops on board, constituting a force of nearly 4000 men, landed on the island, and made an attack on the English fortifications, garrisoned by no more than 350 men. Their operations, however, were so ill directed, that after repeated efforts, in which no want of courage appeared, they were repulsed with the loss of their commander, and many killed and wounded. A body of 500 of them, unable to get back to their boats, were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

Russia continued throughout this year to waste its population and revenues in its war with the Ottoman Porte, which was carried on with the most vigorous efforts on both sides. At the close of the year the Russian arms had decidedly obtained that superiority which skill and discipline must always finally obtain over blind valour.

The Russian emperor might at his pleasure disengage himself from the burden of a war of ambition; but difficulties were now impending over him of a more serious kind. He was now the only continental sovereign capable of asserting his independence against that power, which aimed at nothing less than rendering all Europe subservient to its views; and his resolution to maintain that dignified position was now to be put to the proof. The scheme which the emperor Napoleon had formed for ruining the finances of England, by cutting off her commercial communication with the continent of Europe, required an universal concurrence in the means proposed; and he had effected this purpose so far, that he could not brook any obstacle to its completion. But the English trade with Russia was too important to that empire to be readily renounced. Many of the nobility derived a great share of their revenues from the sale of products of which Great Britain was the principal market, and its connexions with the mercantile interest of Russia were extremely intimate. On this account English goods had never been committed to the flames in that country, and British colonial produce was admitted into the Russian ports in neutral bottoms. The presence of an English fleet in the Baltic during the summer could not fail of occasioning some relaxation of the system of commercial exclusion, which gave umbrage to the rulers of France. Other causes of difference subsisted between the courts of Petersburg and Paris; and

the whole year passed in discussions between them, some of which bore the aspect of immediate hostility. On the whole, it was unquestionable that the temper of Russia at the close of the year was more friendly towards England than towards France; and a cloud was gathering, which in the ensuing year burst forth with great fury.

The state of affairs between Great Britain and the United States still remained unadjusted. Early in the year Mr Foster was sent over as envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary. But so long as the English government was determined to maintain the fatal orders in council, nothing could be effected. In the month of May an accidental encounter, originating in some point of naval etiquette, occurred between a British and an American frigate. The two governments equally disavowed intentional hostility; but all these things tended to mutual irritation. On the meeting of congress on 4th November, president Madison announced: "the necessity of putting the United States into an *armour* and attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with the national spirit and expectation!" He also expressed much dissatisfaction with the court of France for its delay in restoring the great amount of American seizures; and for the restrictions imposed on their trade in the French dominions. The committee of congress, in their report on the president's speech, expressed themselves in still stronger terms respecting their wrongs, and

recommended vigorous measures of preparation by land and sea. Such was the menacing aspect of affairs in that quarter with which the year closed.

South America was now involved in all the miseries of civil war. In Mexico, several sanguinary engagements during the last and present year terminated in a decided superiority of the royalists. The confederacy of Venezuela placed general Miranda at the head of their forces, and felt themselves strong enough to meet in congress and issue a declaration of independence, conceived in language not less forcible than that of the North Americans on their separation from Great Britain. In the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, the capital, with the greater part of the province, had adopted the cause of independence; while Monte Video, through its connexion with Cadiz, was held firm to the interest of the mother country. Elio, the new viceroy, a man of a vigorous character, on his arrival at that town issued a proclamation for the capture and confiscation of all the vessels which should attempt to enter or quit Buenos Ayres subsequently to the 15th April; and with his squadron of armed ships he blockaded that harbour. The unpleasant situation in which the capital was thus placed, occasioned an army to be sent to lay siege to Monte Video; and Elio, who attempted to protect it, was defeated, and forced to take shelter within its walls.

The squadron from Monte Video now bombarded Buenos Ayres, but occasioned more alarm than mischief; and the junta of the capital took possession of some English merchant vessels for their defence, the crews of which were ready to lend their services. A negotiation was now commenced for a cessation of hostilities; during which the English admiral De Courcy arrived in the river La Plata, and, insisting on the free entrance of British ships into the river, obtained the removal of the blockade with respect to them. The Portuguese government of Brazil now determined to take the part of Old Spain, and sent a body of 8000 men to the assistance of Elío, which, arriving near Monte Video on 10th September, broke off the negotiation.

The most splendid naval achievement of this year was the conquest of the Isle of Java, by an armament fitted out from Madras, under the immediate auspices of lord Minto, who accompanied the expedition in person, the troops being placed under the able command of sir Samuel Auchmuty. On the 5th of August a landing was effected without opposition a few leagues east of the city of Batavia, which surrendered almost on the first summons; the Dutch forces under general Jahtsens, amounting to 10,000 men, retiring to an intrenched camp near Cornelis. Here they were attacked by the British on the 26th, and after a gallant resistance the lines were forced, the fort of Cornelis stormed, and the Dutch army routed with terrible slaughter; the whole 10,000 men



being either killed, taken, or dispersed. General Janssens fled with a few cavalry to the distance of thirty miles, where he employed himself in collecting all his remaining force for the defence of the rest of the island. Sir Samuel Auchmuty, however, pushed his success with vigour, and marching to Samarang, whither general Janssens had retired, he took possession of it without opposition. When another attempt at resistance had been frustrated, an armistice took place, which concluded with the surrender of the European troops; and the delivery of the whole island of Java to the British arms. The small island of Madura also submitted; and thus not a vestige was left of the eastern dominion of the Gallo-Batavian empire.

Opposing fleets were now no longer to be found on the ocean; but, in the absence of the pride and pomp of war, the public attention was arrested by a remarkably gallant action of an English squadron of four frigates, of which captain Hoste was the commodore. It occurred off the north point of the island of Lesina on the coast of Dalmatia, which the enemy had been sent to fortify and garrison. On the 18th of March the English commodore descried a French force of five frigates and six smaller vessels, with 500 troops on board. Confiding in his superiority the French commodore bore down in two divisions to attack the English, who formed in a close line to receive him. The action commenced by an attempt of the French commander to

practice the manœuvre of breaking the line, in which he failed; and endeavouring afterwards to round the English van, he was so roughly treated, that his ship became unmanageable and ran on the rocks. The action was still maintained with great fury, till two of the French frigates struck. Two others crowded sail for the port of Lesina, and the small vessels dispersed in all directions. The result of this action, which ranks among the most brilliant achievements of the British navy, was the burning of the ship of the brave French commodore, who was killed in the engagement, and the capture of two others. A fourth, which had struck her colours, took an opportunity of stealing away, and was in vain reclaimed as lawful prize by captain Hoste. The loss of the English amounted to 200 in killed and wounded.

In the month of May of this year a severe conflict took place in the Indian Sea off Madagascar, between an English and French squadron. Three French frigates with troops on board having appeared off the Mauritius, and borne away on discovering that the island had been captured, captain Schomberg of the *Astræa* frigate, conjecturing that they would make for Tamatava, followed them thither, accompanied by two other frigates and a sloop of war. On the 20th May the enemy was discovered near Foul Point, Madagascar, when a partial engagement took place, in which the English ship *Galatea* suffered so much in her masts that she could not

be brought again into action. On the next day the engagement was renewed, and the French commodore's ship of forty-four guns and 470 men, of whom 200 were picked troops, struck, after being reduced to a wreck. Another frigate struck, but according to the French custom made its escape. The English squadron then proceeded to Tamatava, which had been repossessed by the French, and obliged the fort and vessels in the harbour to surrender; among which was a frigate of forty-four guns that had been in the late action.

The close of this year was remarkable for violent storms occasioning great losses at sea, of which the British navy partook in full proportion. On the 4th of December the Saldanha frigate, the honourable captain Pakenham, was lost off Lough Swilley, on the northern coast of Ireland, and every soul perished. A dreadful gale in the German Ocean on the 24th December was much more extensively fatal. The Hero, captain Newman, of seventy-four guns, escorting a convoy from Wingo Sound, ran on the Haak Sound off the Texel, and every attempt to save the crew being ineffectual, the ship went to pieces and the whole of the crew were lost. Several vessels of the convoy shared her fate. On the same disastrous day, the St George of ninety-eight guns, admiral Reynolds, and the Defence of seventy-four guns, captain Atkins, sailing home from the Baltic, were stranded on the western coast of North Jutland. The consequence was that both

were entirely lost, and only six men saved from one ship, and eleven from the other.

Among the domestic occurrences of the year it may be interesting to mention, that a census of the population of Great Britain was taken this year, exhibiting a result highly favourable to the prosperity of the kingdom. The total of the population returned in 1801 was 10,942,646; that of 1811 was 12,552,144; exhibiting an increase of 1,611,882, of which almost every town and district numbered had a share. If such an increase appears scarcely credible during ten years chiefly spent in war, the excess may partly be attributed to greater attention in making the returns, which probably was the real case; yet various circumstances lead to the opinion, that the country had actually received a considerable addition of people during that period.

The interior tranquillity of England was little disturbed during the greater part of the year, but towards the close of it serious tumults broke out in the districts of the hosiery manufactory, particularly in the county of Nottingham. They were occasioned by the discharge of many workmen, partly owing to a decrease in demand for the articles manufactured, and partly to the invention of a wide frame for weaving stockings, by which a considerable saving of labour was effected. The first attacks of the rioters were directed against these frames: they commenced on the 10th of November near Nottingham, and were continued with augmented daring, attended

with outrages of other kinds. The riotous spirit extended to the manufacturing districts of Derbyshire and Leicestershire, though Nottingham was still the centre of the mischief. Numbers of frames were destroyed during the month of December; but it was not till the next year that the evil spread so far as to become an object of serious attention to the government.

The only branch of the house of Bourbon which at this time retained any reliques of its former dignity, was that which reigned in Sicily by the courtesy of Great Britain. Yet the conduct of the court of Palermo, and particularly of the queen, who governed the king and kingdom, was such as to make it difficult to determine upon the measures best adapted to the present critical circumstances. A British force had been maintained at a vast expense in the island, and subsidies granted to the monarch, which had been perverted to purposes far different from those of defence. As the reigning family were notoriously the objects of the public scorn and abhorrence, it was deemed highly requisite by the British government that some political reforms should be effected for the general satisfaction. But this design called forth all the rage of the queen, and was much more the object of her dread than any consequences that could result from putting herself under the protection of the French emperor. Such of the nobles as were disposed to the French interest were favourably received at court, while those who were known

to be attached to Great Britain were persecuted or imprisoned. "That wicked woman, the queen of Sicily," said Napoleon, "proposed to me to make a second Sicilian vespers—to massacre all the English in Sicily, if I would afterwards support her!" Lord William Bentinck, appointed ambassador to the court of Palermo, had scarcely landed, when he found its disposition such as made it necessary for him to return for fresh instructions.

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## CHAPTER VIII.

1812.

THE year, on the history of which we are now about to enter, will long be distinguished in the annals of Great Britain, by the extraordinary and important events to which it gave birth. The parliament of the United Kingdom was opened by commission on the 7th of January. A. D. 1812. The council appointed to assist the queen, and who were directed by the regency act to make a report every three months of the state of the king's health, had hitherto encouraged the expectation of a favourable result. They now, however, acknowledged, "that in the opinion of all the physicians, his Majesty's complete and final recovery was improbable."

At an early period of the session Mr Percival proposed a plan for the arrangement of the royal household, and recommended such an addition to the civil list as might support the separate establishments now become necessary for the regent and the king. To enable his royal highness to assume the reins of government, he proposed a grant of L.100,000 for one year only. He likewise suggested an addition of L. 10,000 a-year to the queen's income, to meet the extraordinary expenditure which her majesty might be likely to incur. When the bills for these purposes had been passed, an annuity of L.36,000 was granted as a provision for the four princesses, each of whom were to receive L.9000 a-year, exclusive of L.4000 from the civil list. On the demise of one, the survivors were to have L. 10,000 each; the same to be continued when there should be two survivors: the proportion for the sole survivor was to be L. 12,000.

The year of restriction and limitation was now on the point of expiring; and a strong persuasion seemed to prevail of a material change both in relation to men and measures. Of this, however, there was not the slightest intimation in the speech delivered by the lord-chancellor in the name of the regent. The successes of the Spanish war, the consummate skill of lord Wellington, the capture of the islands of Java, Bourbon, and Mauritius, were dwelt upon with satisfaction. As to America it was said, "the prince regent will continue to employ such means of concilia-

tion as may be consistent with the honour and dignity of his Majesty's crown, and the maritime rights of the empire. It was recommended to parliament to take into consideration the measures that seemed most proper for the future government of the British possessions in India, and to resume that of the Irish finances.

The state of Ireland, particularly with reference to the Roman Catholics, was brought early in the session under the discussion of both houses, by motions for appointing committees to take them into consideration. That in the house of lords was introduced by earl Fitzwilliam; in the commons by lord Morpeth. On this occasion the whole force of argument on both sides was brought into debate; and while concession to the catholic claims was strongly urged by one party, and as strongly deprecated by the other, a middle course was taken in the speeches of the marquis Wellesley and Mr Canning, who decidedly supported the justice and policy of annulling the restrictions under which the catholics laboured, but contended against the propriety of concession whilst that body remained in the menacing attitude they had recently assumed. The motions were negatived in the house of lords by 162 to 79; in the commons by 229 to 135.

The continued disturbances in the hosiery manufacturing districts, in which frame-breaking was organized into a regular system, which the exertions of the magistrates, with the aid of a military force, were unable to control, occasioned



Mr secretary Ryder, on the 14th of February, to introduce two bills into the house of commons, the object of which was to add new powers to those already conferred by the laws for suppressing those tumultuous proceedings. The first of these was to render the crime of frame-breaking, now punished by transportation, a capital offence. The second was to enable the lord-lieutenant of the county, the sheriff, or five justices, when disturbances existed, to call a special meeting for the appointment of a necessary number of constables, and establishing watch and ward. When the first bill came under discussion in the house, it met with considerable opposition, as being an extension of capital punishment which ought not to be admitted without more accurate inquiry; and the appointment of committees for the latter purpose was proposed, but negatived. The bill being speedily carried through that house, was sent to the lords, where it was commented on with still greater severity: it however passed into a law. When the second bill was introduced into the house of commons, a suggestion was made for extending its provisions to the neighbouring counties; and during its progress Mr Ryder stated, that he had received communications from various parts, which had rendered it advisable to give it an extension to the whole kingdom, and that it had therefore been new-modelled by the addition of several clauses. This bill likewise passed into a law; but the operation of both bills was limited to March 1. 1814.

Early in the session notice had been taken in parliament of an appointment conferred on the regent's confidential servant, colonel M'Mahon, which was that of paymaster of widows' pensions, a place mentioned in the report of the commissioners for public accounts as one of those sinecures which ought to be abolished, which opinion was confirmed by the commissioners of military inquiry. The ministers defended, as well as they were able, this appointment, and defeated by majorities the first motion concerning it; but the national feeling was so decidedly on the other side, that a resolution for the abolition of the place at length passed by 115 votes against 112. Colonel M'Mahon was remunerated for his loss by the post of keeper of the privy purse, and private secretary to the prince regent.

This circumstance was brought before parliament also, on the 23d of March, by the honourable Mr Ward, who questioned the chancellor of the exchequer respecting the salary and duties of a place with the existence of which he was unacquainted. In answer he was told, that the same offices had been held under the king by colonel Taylor, though he was compelled to admit that this was not till after his Majesty's deprivation of sight. A motion for the reduction of the appointment being afterwards made, a debate ensued, in which its propriety was warmly contested. On a division, however, the efforts of the ministry succeeded in quashing the motion, by a majority of 176 to 100. Here too the voice of

the public was not in unison with that of the house ; and it was found expedient to adopt the suggestion of Mr Wilberforce, that the salary should be paid out of the regent's privy purse.

In a committee of supply, 13th April, the sum of L. 554,441 was moved for as the expense of the barrack department for the current year. Among other items in the estimate, which were thought extravagant, particular exception was taken to the charge of L. 138,000 for a barrack to be built for the second regiment of life-guards, in a piece of ground newly taken in under the name of the regent's park, and which was generally understood to be designed for an ornament to the park. In repeated debates on the subject of the barrack estimates, objections were made to this and some other articles ; and an amendment proposed for a reduction of the sum was rejected by no greater majority than 134 to 112. This public discussion was not without its effect ; for when the budget was brought forward by the new chancellor of the exchequer, it was announced that the treasury had struck off an additional vote of L. 90,000 for the barrack department, it having been resolved to *postpone* the execution of the projected barracks at Mary-le-bone park, Bristol, and Liverpool.

From the incidents now mentioned it will manifestly appear, that the ministers had not been neglectful of those means of securing the favour of the regent, which, when he came to the unrestricted exercise of his power, might render their

continuance in office a more probable event than it was generally regarded to have been at the commencement of the regency. But as from this time the meditated or expected changes in the administration occupied the greatest share of the public attention, it will now be proper to take up the subject from the beginning, and pursue it in an uninterrupted narration.

Early in the year the cabinet sustained a considerable loss by the resignation of the marquis of Wellesley. The motives for this step were stated to have been a difference with his colleagues as to the scale on which the war in Spain and Portugal was to be carried on, which the noble marquis regarded as narrow and inefficient; to which may be added, a general opinion that the ministers were deficient in knowledge and ability. He signified his intention of withdrawing on the 16th of January, but was induced, at the regent's request, to remain in his post till the expiration of the restrictions. Finding then that it was the regent's intention to continue Mr Percival at the head of the ministry, and being consulted on the formation of a cabinet, he declared, that on certain principles he would be ready to serve with Mr Percival, but that he would never serve under him; and his resignation was accepted on the 19th of February, lord Castlereagh succeeding him in the post of secretary for foreign affairs.

On the 13th of February the prince regent addressed a singular letter to the duke of York, in which he declared, "that the restrictions of the

regency act being about to expire, he must make his arrangements for the future administration; his sentiments relative to which he had hitherto withheld, from his earnest desire that the expected motion of the affairs of Ireland might undergo the deliberate discussion of parliament, unmixed with any other consideration. He could not reflect without pleasure on the events which had distinguished the short period of his restricted regency: And in regard to the war in the Peninsula, I shall," said his royal highness, "be most anxious to avoid any measure that can lead my allies to suppose that I mean to depart from the present system; and I cannot withhold my approbation from those who have honourably distinguished themselves in support of it. I have no predilections to indulge, no resentments to gratify. Having made this communication, I cannot conclude without expressing the gratification I should feel, if some of those persons with whom the early habits of my public life were formed, would strengthen my hands, and constitute a part of my government. You are authorized to communicate these sentiments to lord Grey, who I have no doubt will communicate them to lord Grenville."

This letter, as might be expected, excited no little surprise in all the political circles, and gave rise to much free animadversion. It seemed particularly surprising to many, that his royal highness could for a moment indulge the expectation that the lords Grey and Grenville, who had re-

jected with disdain the far more respectful overture of 1809, should now condescend to constitute a part of Mr Percival's administration. In a letter bearing the signature of the two lords, in reply to the duke of York, they say, "We must express without reserve the impossibility of uniting with the present government. Our differences of opinion are too many and too important to admit of such union. His royal highness will, we are confident, do us the justice to remember, that we have already *twice* acted on this impression,—in 1809, on the overture then made to us under his Majesty's authority, and last year, when his royal highness was pleased to require our advice respecting the formation of a new government."

The failure of the negociation which was the result of these letters was made known, when, on the 19th of March, lord Boringdon moved in the house of lords for an address to the prince regent, beseeching him to form an administration so composed as to unite the confidence and good-will of all classes of his Majesty's subjects. In the ensuing debate, lord Grey stated the points on which lord Grenville and himself had declined an union with the present ministers. The existing administration, he said, was formed on the express principle of resistance to the catholic claims,—a principle loudly proclaimed by the person at the head of it, from the moment he quitted the bar to take a share in political life up

to the present instant ; and where he led, the rest were obliged to follow !

His lordship then adverted to other points of difference, with respect to the disputes with America ; though he would go as far as any man in support of our essential maritime interests, yet he should think it necessary to weigh the true value of those interests in dispute, bearing in mind the principle so well expressed by Mr Burke, " As we ought never to go to war for a profitable wrong, so we ought never to go to war for an unprofitable right." On the subject of the circulating medium of the country, he avowed, that an impassable line of separation existed between him and the present ministry, with respect to making bank notes a legal tender. As to the war in the Peninsula, it was his wish that we should not proceed on the present expensive scale without having some military authority as to the probable result. In fine, he said, the most momentous of all his objections against the present system of government, was the existence of an unseen and separate influence behind the throne. The debate on lord Boringdon's motion terminated in a division upon an amendment proposed by viscount Grimstone, which in effect counteracted the whole of it, and was carried by 165 against 72.

The existing administration now proceeded unchanged, and without any symptom of want of stability, till it was deprived of its leader by a most tragical and singular incident. On the

11th of May, as Mr Percival was entering the lobby of the house of commons about five in the afternoon, a person of the name of Bellingham fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast and pierced his heart. He staggered, fell, and almost instantly expired. Nothing could surpass the consternation in both houses which was excited by this catastrophe; the first idea being that of a conspiracy against the members of administration to an unknown extent. It was however soon discovered, that the act was merely in revenge of some supposed private injury. Bellingham having in a commercial visit to Russia sustained some heavy losses, for which he fancied the English government was bound to procure him redress, had made repeated application to them for that purpose; and their refusal to take any cognizance of his case had made such an impression on his mind, constitutionally disposed to melancholy, that he resolved to make a sacrifice of some conspicuous member of the government which had neglected him. The general regard entertained for Mr Percival's character as a man, even by those who widely differed from him in political opinions, was testified by an ample provision unanimously voted for his widow and family. His particular friends broke through this unanimity, by the proposal of further honours to his memory and donations to his family, which were opposed, but finally carried. The assassin paid with his life a deed of atrocity which would have been a national stain, had it not resulted



from a mind evidently labouring under a degree of mental obliquity.

This event was regarded as inflicting such a wound on the ministry as would render absolutely necessary, if not a radical change, at least a very considerable alteration in its system and composition; and the earl of Liverpool, on whom the post of leader now devolved, was directed by the prince regent to endeavour to acquire an accession of strength by the association of the marquis Wellesley and Mr Canning. His negociation for this purpose failed; the cause of which, as appears from the letters made public on the occasion, was a continued difference of opinion between the subsisting members of administration and the persons applied to, respecting the measures to be pursued with regard to the catholics, and the scale on which the war was to be carried on in the Peninsula.

While affairs were in this fluctuating state, and it was supposed that efforts were making to patch up a new ministry by additions to the old, Mr Stuart Wortley, on the 21st May, brought a motion before the house of commons for an address to the prince regent, praying him to take such steps as might be the best calculated to form an efficient administration; implying, as he avowed, that the persons now about to be called into, and to be continued in the management of public affairs, did not possess the confidence of the country. The motion being warmly debated as a trial of strength between the different parties,

an attempt to set it aside by the orders of the day was defeated, by 174 to 170, when it passed without a division. Mr Wortley next moved, that the address should be presented by such members as were of the privy council: to his great surprise it was rejected by a majority of two. At length it was agreed upon, that it should be presented by lord Milton and himself. The answer which his royal highness returned was, that he would take the address into his serious and immediate consideration.

It being now apparent that the ministers were now no longer supported by a majority in the house of commons, the prince regent directed negotiations to be opened for effecting the object of the address. The first person to whom this delicate commission was intrusted was the marquis Wellesley, who after a short time tendered to his royal highness his resignation of the office. In the house of lords, on the 3d of June, his lordship gave information of this circumstance, at the same time lamenting "that the most dreadful personal animosities, and the most terrible difficulties arising out of questions the most complicated and important, should have interposed obstacles to an arrangement so essential to the public welfare." These strong expressions he afterwards explained as not referring to the prince regent, but to the earl of Liverpool and his colleagues, who, however, disavowed the personal animosity imputed to them.

The task of arrangement was now transferred

to earl Moira, who was vested with similar powers; and as his political sentiments were known to be in unison with those of lords Grey and Grenville on the great points now at issue, the nation was well prepared to hail the appointment of a new administration, of which earl Grey, who possessed far beyond any other individual the confidence of the nation, should be the head. Yet the sanguine hopes now formed were, by a strange fatality, wholly disappointed. The offices of lord-chamberlain and vice-chamberlain were at this time filled by the marquis of Hertford, and his son the earl of Yarmouth, who were known to stand high in personal favour with the regent; though neither did it appear that they possessed any political influence, nor that their political opinions were adverse to the whigs. Unfortunately, however, differences of moment had arisen during the negociation of 1806, between the ministers then at the head of affairs and the earl of Yarmouth, a young nobleman who had to the last enjoyed the confidence of Mr Fox, and whose spirited vindication of his conduct had given perfect satisfaction to all the real advocates of peace throughout the kingdom.

The political alienation thus created had taken deep root, in so much that the lords Grey and Grenville deemed it requisite to demand as a preliminary, that the great household offices should be comprehended in the general change. A wiser policy would probably have respected the personal feelings of the prince, who had now made such

ample political concessions ; and it is well known that many changes of administration have taken place without touching the household offices. The powers with which the earl of Moira was vested on this occasion were unlimited ; but such was the disgust excited in his mind by this unusual requisition, that the negotiation broke off almost at its commencement. Lord Yarmouth, the principal person in the regent's household, affirmed, that it was the intention of himself and his friends to resign their situation previously to the entrance of the new administration upon their offices ; and that they had taken means to make their intention known in those quarters whence it was very likely to reach the ears of the persons most interested. Mr Ponsonby, on the other hand, asserted, for himself and the two lords, that they had never heard one word of such intention, nor had they the remotest idea that it existed.

Another fact not less extraordinary than the foregoing at this time came to light. Mr Canning, in giving an account of these negotiations to the house of commons, said, that he was authorized to give a statement of lord Moira's conduct on the subject. Having put the question directly to the prince regent, "Is your royal highness prepared, if I should so advise it, to part with all the officers of your household?" The answer was, "I am." "Then," said his lordship, "your royal highness shall not part with one of them!" If this sally of sentiment was the real cause of preventing a total change of men and measures

at that important crisis, as appears to have been the case, it affords a striking example of "great events from little causes."

On the 7th of June Mr Stuart Wortley brought forward a motion in the house of commons, respecting the failure in the negotiations for a new administration, prefacing it with some severe censures on the conduct of lords Grey and Grenville, in putting an end to the treaty with them on account of a difference concerning the household. He then moved for an address to the prince regent, expressing regret that their expectations had not been realized, and entreating that his royal highness would without delay form such an administration as might be entitled to the support of parliament and the confidence of the nation. It was in the debate on this motion that the circumstances above mentioned were made public. The motion was negatived without a division; and thus the old ministry remained in possession of the support of the house of commons.

These repeated efforts at negotiation having thus proved abortive, on the 9th of June the prince regent appointed the earl of Liverpool first lord of the treasury, and Mr Vansittart chancellor of the exchequer. The earl of Harrowby (the Mr Ryder) was appointed president of the council; lords Bathurst, Sidmouth, and Castlereagh, were secretaries of state. Viscount Melville was promoted to the admiralty, in the room of Mr Yorke, who was gratified with the tellership of the exchequer. Lord Eldon continued chancellor,

lord Westmoreland privy seal ; and the earl of Moira, now honoured with the garter, was appointed governor-general of India, an office for which he was deemed peculiarly qualified. The public, sensible that the regent had not been wanting in his efforts to form such an administration as the times demanded, acquiesced without any expressions of dissatisfaction in the present arrangement.

Soon after his accession to office Mr Vansittart brought forward his plan of finance, or rather, as he said, that of his lamented predecessor, for the current year. The whole of the supply demanded for the United Kingdom was L. 58,000,000. Of this grand aggregate the sum of L. 15,650,000 was raised by loan for Great Britain ; and for Ireland a separate loan of L. 4,350,000. Near L. 10,000,000 were funded of exchequer bills ; the war taxes were estimated at L. 20,400,000 ; a vote of credit was passed for L. 3,000,000 ; and the urgent necessities of the East India Company required the sum of L. 2,500,000. The annual taxes and consolidated fund furnished the remainder of the supply, and new taxes were imposed to the amount of nearly L. 2,000,000.

On the 22d of June Mr Canning moved a resolution, " That this house will, early in the next session, take into consideration the state of the laws respecting the catholics." This was supported by lord Castlereagh, who observed, " that the obstacles which formerly existed having been removed, the time was now arrived when it was

highly proper to take the claims of the catholics into consideration." On this joint recommendation the motion was carried by a decisive majority of 225 to 106 members. On a similar resolution proposed in the upper house by marquis Wellesley, the previous question was put by the lord-chancellor, and carried by 126 to 125 peers.

Towards the close of the session Mr Brougham, in a very able speech on the subject of the orders in council, moved an address to the prince regent, " beseeching him to recall or suspend those orders, and to adopt such measures as might tend to conciliate neutral powers." These orders had indeed for some time past been in a great measure superseded by licenses arbitrarily granted by government, and liable to the grossest abuse. The general voice had now become loud and clamorous for their revocation; and in the sequel of the discussion, lord Castlereagh, after deprecating the attempt to urge the house to " a precipitate decision," intimated, that government had in view the adoption of conciliatory measures respecting America. The motion of Mr Brougham was in consequence withdrawn; and on the 23d of June appeared a proclamation announcing the suspension of the orders in council of January 1807 and April 1809, as far as regarded American property, from the 1st of August following, on the condition that America should, on the regular notification of the same, also rescind or suspend its prohibitory decrees. Unhappily this tardy concession, like all the

former conciliatory measures respecting America for forty years past, came too late to be of any avail. On the 30th of July the parliament was prorogued by commission; and on the 29th September it was unexpectedly dissolved.

Of the highly momentous transactions on the European continent this year, those in the Spanish peninsula claim the first notice, as well in chronological order as in point of importance to this country.

Towards the close of the last year the town of Tariffa in Andalusia, garrisoned by 1000 British infantry, with a detachment of artillery, under the command of colonel Skerrat, and a body of Spaniards, was invested by the French with an army of 10,000 men commanded by marshal Victor. A breach being made in the wall, the enemy advanced to the assault on the 31st December, when they were received with so much intrepidity, that, after a considerable loss, they were obliged to retreat. They continued to fire against the breach, and another attack was expected, when on January 5th their columns were seen retiring, having left behind them their ammunition, artillery, and stores. This defence conferred great honour on the garrison and its commander, who held out with only 1800 men behind a weak wall against a marshal of France.

Lord Wellington having made his dispositions for reducing the frontier fortresses occupied by the enemy, crossed the Agueda, and on the 8th of January invested Ciudad Rodrigo; while



general Hill, advancing from Merida, compelled Druot to retire from Almendralajo upon Zafra and Llerena, leaving his stores and ammunition. Badajoz was thus reduced to the utmost extremity, the country between the Tagus and the Guadiana cleared of the enemy, and the communication between Soult and Marmont intercepted. The siege of Ciudad Rodrigo was now vigorously pressed; and on the 19th an attack was made in five separate columns, which proved completely successful at every point. The garrison, after a desperate conflict, surrendered to the number of 1700 men besides officers, thus placing in the hands of the captors the heavy train of the French army, with great quantities of ammunition and stores.

The British army sustained a severe loss in the death of major-general Mackinnon, who fell at the head of his storming party in the moment of victory; and the hardihood of the assault was shewn in the number of killed and wounded, which was not less than 1200. Thus, in the space of ten days the allies succeeded in recovering a fortress, which, when in a state of weakness, and garrisoned by Spaniards, resisted for a whole month the efforts of general Massena, supported by an army of 110,000 men. Marmont, who had stationed his army on the Tagus to support the operations in Valencia, had calculated on being in time for its relief by the 29th of January. He had advanced to Salamanca with a large army, collected from the north and centre of Spain,

when he was surprised and mortified by the news of its fall. After attempting in vain to lure his antagonist to a battle, he placed his army in cantonments along the Tormes.

After strengthening the fortifications of Ciudad Rodrigo, lord Wellington moved the greater part of his army to the southward for the support of general Hill, who was blockading Badajoz with about 12,000 men, aided by the Portuguese army under marshal Beresford. He urged on the siege with such vigour and success, that on the 6th of April three practicable breaches were made, and a resolution was instantly taken to storm the place. General Picton was ordered to attack the castle by escalade, major Wilson to assail the ravelin of San Roque, and major-general Colville to attack the bastions of La Trinidad and Santa Martha. The conduct of a false attack was intrusted to lieutenant-general Leith, with instructions to convert it into a real one, should circumstances prove favourable. Picton crossed the Guadiana after some resistance, and in an hour and a half was master of the castle. Wilson carried the ravelin of San Roque. The light division under Colville, after repeated attempts, was unable to gain the bastions; but the false attack under general Leith, and the other operations of the besiegers, entirely succeeded. The French governor with his staff retired into Fort St Christoval, and surrendered on the following day. The garrison, which originally amounted to 5000 men, had lost 1200 killed and wounded in the previous

operations, and suffered severely in the assault. The British and Portuguese had 800 killed and 2000 wounded.

By the speedy reduction of this important fortress, lord Wellington again baffled his opponents. Marmont, after in vain attempting to surprise Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, penetrated into Portugal as far as Castello Branco, where he no sooner learnt the result of the siege than he commenced a precipitate retreat. Soult, who had reached Villa Franca, fell back with equal alacrity, pursued by the British cavalry under sir Stapleton Cotton. On the 11th April the dragoons under major-general Le Marchant charged the rear-guard of the French with such impetuosity as to drive them with the utmost confusion into Llerena, where the main army was posted. On the same day Soult evacuated the place; and thus the province of Estremadura was entirely freed from the enemy.

The British commander, following up these successes, detached general Hill to destroy the bridge of Almaraz, almost the only communication below Toledo by which a large army could cross the Tagus. This bridge was strongly defended on either side by works which the enemy had thrown up; and it was moreover protected by the neighbouring castle and redoubts of Mirabeto. The extreme badness of the roads retarded this enterprise; but on the 19th of May the British carried the works on the left bank of the river by escalade. The enemy attempted to

stomps over the bridge, but their comrades on the other side destroyed it, and fled with precipitation towards Naval Mora. Many of the fugitives whose escape was thus intercepted perished in the stream, and 800 were taken prisoners. When Marmont heard of the movement upon Almaraz, he moved to the south-east as far as Fort Veras, where the intelligence of its success induced him to retrace his steps, and again occupy himself in fortifying the convents of Salamanca.

Lord Wellington appeared before that city with his main army on the 16th of June, when the French general, leaving a force to defend the fortifications, retired with his troops across the Tormes. He afterwards attempted to relieve the forts, which from their strength had been formed into a depôt of stores; but the British general, by a masterly manœuvre, compelled him to abandon them to their fate. Major-general Clinton, with the sixth division, was ordered to reduce them; in which, after some delay occasioned by an accidental scarcity of ammunition, he succeeded. Lord Wellington then put his army in motion against Marmont, who hastily retired across the Douro, destroyed the bridges, and concentrated his forces at Tordesillas. His rear-guard, stationed at Rueda, was attacked by the British cavalry under sir Stapleton Cotton, and driven in great confusion upon the main body.

Lord Wellington now menaced the Spanish capital; on which Marmont, who had received a reinforcement under général Bonnet which gave

him a superiority of numbers, extended his right as far as Toro, restored the bridge at that place, and ordered a part of his army to cross the river, as if to turn the left wing of the British. Suddenly recalling them, however, he pushed on rapidly with his whole force to Tordesillas, crossed at that point, and succeeded in turning the flank of the allies at Castrogon. This brilliant movement re-established his communications with Madrid and with the army of the centre. Lord Wellington having made dispositions for the retreat and junction of his different divisions, took up a position in which he offered battle. General Marmont declined it, but disdaining to wait for the reinforcements which were hastening to join him, he persevered in his manoeuvres on the British flanks.

A series of skilful movements now ensued on both sides, until the 21st of July, when the allied army was concentrated on the Tormes. On the same day the French crossed the river, and appeared to threaten Ciudad Rodrigo. During the 22d and 23d Marmont practised a variety of evolutions to distract the attention of the British general from his real plan, which was to enclose the allies in their position on a peninsula formed by the river, and to cut off their retreat. He threatened their left, which he found well provided for defence, while their other flank, where the real attack was expected, presented a no less formidable resistance. In aiming to surround the British, he extended and weakened his own line;

and Lord Wellington watching the progress of this person, seized the favourable moment for striking a decisive blow. His arrangements were soon made, and no time lost in executing them. Major-general Bakenham with the third division commenced a furious assault on the flanks of the enemy's left, in which he was supported by brigadier-general Bradford's brigade, by the fourth and fifth divisions, and by the cavalry under sir Stapleton Cotton in front. The French, though finely posted and supported by cannon, were overthrown. Against the enemy's centre, on the hill of the Arapiles, general Paoli's attempt was at first unsuccessful; but the fifth division, after its success on their left, changed its front, and, attacking their centre, drove it from the hill with precipitation. The right wing of the French being joined by the fugitives, maintained a shew of resistance, but it was attacked in front and on its flanks, and driven in confusion from the field. The pursuit was continued till night, and renewed next morning, when the French rear-guard was overtaken, attacked, and put to flight, the cavalry leaving the infantry to their fate. Three entire battalions surrendered, and large quantities of stores, baggage, and ammunition, fell into the hands of the conquerors. Eleven pieces of cannon, two eagles, and six stand of colours were taken; five generals, three lieutenant-colonels, 130 officers of different ranks, and 7000 soldiers, were made prisoners.

The loss of the allies was about 7000 killed and 4000 wounded. Major-general Le Marchant, a brave and skilful officer, was killed; lieutenant-generals Leith and Cole, and major-general Alten, were wounded. Sir Stapleton Cotton was fired upon at night through mistake by a British soldier, but happily his wound did not prove fatal. On the side of the enemy, Marmont and Bonnet were both wounded, and the command of the fugitive army devolved upon general Clausel, who for some time made a stand on the Douro; but on the approach of the allies crossed that river, and abandoned Valladolid, continuing his retreat upon Burgos. Thus terminated the battle of Salamanca, in which lord Wellington obtained a complete victory over an army superior in numbers to his own, and commanded by one of the most distinguished of the French marshals.

Leaving a force under general Paget to watch the motions of the enemy, lord Wellington now advanced with the main body of his army to the Spanish capital. King Joseph, who with 20,000 men under his command had reached Segovia, hearing of the defeat of Marmont, hastily retreated through Madrid to Almaraz, a position from which he could communicate either with Suchet or Soult. On the 12th of August the allied army entered the capital; the Retiro, garrisoned by 1500 men, immediately surrendered, and Guadalaxara was at the same time taken by the Empecinado. At this time intelligence had

informed Lord Wellington, that an army of British and Neapolitan troops from Sicily, under the command of general Maitland, with some Spaniards from Majorca, had arrived at Alicant. Expectations were formed that this force, uniting with the patriots of Murcia and Valencia, might favour the operations of the grand army by a powerful diversion; but unfortunately the defeat of general O'Donnell by the French under Harispe, combined with other reverses, disabled the Spaniards from acting, and in a great measure deranged the plan of the campaign.

Aware that their losses had been aggravated by a want of concert, the commanders of the French forces now co-operated in order to retrieve them. On the 24th of August Soult relinquished the siege of Cadiz, and began to evacuate Andalusia, for the purpose of uniting his forces with those of king Joseph and Suchet for the recovery of the capital. The French troops stationed in Hiscay evacuated that province, and joining the wreck of Marmont's army under Clausel, moved in the direction of Burgos, to watch the British troops destined for the siege of that place. By thus threatening Madrid and reinforcing Burgos, they hoped to compel the British either to fight at a disadvantage or to retreat. They had strongly fortified the latter place, and made it the centre of their operations in the north of Spain.

On the 1st of September Lord Wellington quit-  
ted Madrid, and advanced to Valladolid, the



enemy retiring before him across the Puyocerra. He pursued them to Burgos, through which city they retired during the night of the 17th, leaving a strong garrison in the castle. Preparations were immediately made for besieging this important strong-hold; and as the heavy artillery had not arrived, recourse was had to the slow and uncertain process of sapping. On the 11th of October a mine was successfully sprung: the breaches were instantly stormed and the lines escaladed; part of the British actually entered the works; but the fire from the garrison was so heavy, that after sustaining some loss they were obliged to retire. Preparations were then made for renewing the assault; but at this critical period the British encountered a series of disappointments. They had been led to calculate on the support of a Gallician army 30,000 strong, in the highest state of order and equipment; whereas this army was found to consist of only 10,000 undisciplined troops. Ballasteros, instead of obeying the orders of lord Wellington to harass the retreat of Soult into Valencia, made an appeal to the Spanish army and the nation against the cortes, who had invested lord Wellington with the chief command. A French army under Souham approached for the relief of Burgos; and after sustaining a spirited repulse, appeared in great force on the 19th in the vicinity of the besieged fortress. On the 21st advices were received, that an army of 70,000 men, under the direction of Soult, Marmont, and the new king, were fast approaching

the passes against general Hill, whose force was quite inadequate to oppose them. This intelligence induced lord Wellington to raise the siege of Burgos, to retire towards the Douro, recall his troops from Madrid, and direct general Hill to proceed northward to join him. He moved upon Salamanca, where he hoped to establish himself; but Soult advancing from Madrid, and uniting his forces with Souham, obliged him to continue his retreat. On the 24th of November he fixed his head-quarters at Freynada, on the Portuguese frontier, after a masterly retreat before an army of 90,000 men, against which he could oppose only 52,000. The campaign might have had a different issue but for the miserable jealousy of Ballasteros, who was arrested by order of the cortes, and banished to Ceuta.

This retreat of lord Wellington, however, like most other retreats when pressed by a superior force, was characterized by disorder and rapine, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the commander, who indignantly complained in his public orders of a "want of discipline, greater than that of any army with which he had ever served, nor of which he had ever read."

The Spanish extraordinary cortes on the 18th of March completed the great work which had so long employed their labours, by the public signature of the constitutional act. Deputies from all parts of the kingdom were present at this ceremony. A commission was appointed to carry the instrument thus signed to the regency; and

on the 20th all the deputies assembled in the hall of congress to swear to the constitution; after which the regency entered the hall, and took the oath of office. The proceedings finished with the solemn proclamation of the constitution; the leading feature of which, unwisely deviating from the best models of government, was the consolidation of the legislative power in one assembly. The ordinary cortes was convened for the 1st of October 1813.

Having pursued the narrative of the Spanish campaign through its various and important operations to its termination, it now becomes necessary to revert to the affairs of the north, where the contest between France and Russia attracted the attention and involved the interests of all Europe. Almost from the commencement of the year 1812, the attention of Europe had been directed towards a new scene, which was opening in the north, and which gave rise to a variety of political conjectures. For some time the two powerful empires of France and Russia, which had ever since the treaty of Tilsit been in a state of friendship and alliance, now exhibited indications of misunderstanding and even of approaching hostilities.

The appointment of a French general to the Swedish succession had apparently formed an indissoluble union of interests between Sweden and France; but circumstances arose which broke this connexion. In the month of February the emperor of France had seized upon Swedish

Pomerania, and this unprovoked aggression incited the crown-prince to assert the independence of his expected throne. The dispute between Russia and France originated chiefly in the commercial restrictions which the continental system established by the French emperor had imposed upon Europe. The emperor Alexander, indignant at the ruin of the trade of his empire, disdained any longer to submit to the restraints of a system, which, though planned solely for the impoverishment of Great Britain, was highly injurious to his subjects, destructive to the commerce of the continent, and wholly unprecedented in the annals of the world.

A train of negotiations now commenced between Russia, Sweden, and England, and also between the two former powers and France. While the political affairs of Europe were thus in a state of suspense and uncertainty, speculative politicians amused themselves and others with numerous and various conjectures. By some, a new continental system was fully expected; by others, it was considered as a case of the highest improbability that Russia should hazard a war with the French emperor, who would be supported by Austria and the confederation of the Rhine. It was alleged that Russia, by engaging again in a war with France, would be stopped in her progress towards the conquest of European Turkey, and even lose all that she had recently gained in that quarter. It was observed, that two more campaigns would bring the Russian armies to the shores of the Propontis,

and the gates of Constantinople ; and the inference was, that it could not be expected that Russia would sacrifice her hopes of conquest for the barren and dangerous glory of a war with France.

In regard to Sweden, it was considered as highly absurd to suppose that the crown-prince should engage in a war against the French emperor. Besides, it was deemed very improbable that Napoleon should provoke a war with Russia, since by such a proceeding he would ruin his cause in Spain and Portugal, and lose the finest countries in Europe for the conquest of morasses and deserts. The event, however, turned out contrary to all these sage speculations ; and the reasonings and conjectures of the cabinets of St Petersburg, Stockholm, and St Cloud, appeared to be widely different from those of news-writers and political pamphleteers. The great features of national relations and interests are in general sufficiently conspicuous ; but the resolutions of courts and the results of cabinet councils often depend on the dispositions and passions of men, on the particular views which monarchs and their ministers have of the state of affairs, and on various other circumstances which lie beyond the reach of public inspection.

The emperors of France and Russia were known to be men of widely different characters. Alexander, beneficent and pacific, might be ranked among the few princes whose virtues adorn an hereditary throne, and promote the prosperity and

happiness of mankind. Napoleon, enterprising and turbulent, nurtured in camps, skilful in tactics, and inured to war, which seemed to be his element, was by nature and education admirably fitted for scenes of confusion and carnage, and for disturbing the peace of the world. The support of the continental system, contrived for the purpose of annihilating the commerce of Great Britain, and drying up the sources of her wealth, was the favourite object of the ruler of France. The overthrow of this system was evidently the interest of Russia, Sweden, and Prussia: but the resources of Sweden were inconsiderable, and Prussia was in vassalage to France. Russia was the only power that could take the lead in an attempt of that nature, in which, however, she was certain of being supported by Great Britain. The emperor of the French, with the forces of Prussia, and those of the confederation of the Rhine at his command, and with every reason to expect the assistance of Austria, might probably suppose that his appearance in the field, with so vast a display of military strength, would intimidate Russia into a compliance with his demands; or, calling to mind the ensanguined fields of Austerlitz and Friedland, he might flatter himself that one successful campaign, or one decisive victory, would enable him to dictate the conditions of peace.

But whatever might be the views and expectations of the emperor of France, he began very early in the spring of this year to move numerous

bodies of troops into the interior of Germany. The Russian monarch, in the meanwhile, prepared to meet the impending storm; and after issuing a declaration of war, put his armies in motion, and by an imperial ukase, dated the 23d of March 1812, ordered a levy of two men in five hundred throughout his extensive dominions. During the months of February, March, and April, great numbers of French troops were continually marching through Germany; and being joined by the contingents of the Rhenish confederation, proceeded towards the Vistula, after placing garrisons in the principal cities and fortresses of Prussia. Preparatory to the great contest which was about to commence, the emperor of the French concluded treaties of alliance with Prussia and Austria, by which these two powers engaged to assist him with very considerable forces. The emperor of Russia also concluded a treaty of peace with the Ottoman Porte, to which he restored the conquests recently made in Moldavia and Wallachia, thus enabling him to withdraw his armies from the banks of the Danube. All matters of dispute were also settled between Russia and Great Britain.

Such were the preparations made for the decisive contest, which was destined to produce events contrary to all expectation, and wholly unparalleled in history. On the 8th of May the French emperor, accompanied by his august consort the empress Maria Louisa, set out from Paris, and on the 11th of that month arrived at

Mentz, where they received the grand-duke and duchess of Hesse Darmstadt, and the prince of Anhalt Goethen. On the 13th they proceeded to Wurtzburg, where they were received by the king of Wirtemberg and the grand-duke of Baden. On the 15th they arrived at Freyberg, where they were met by the king and queen of Saxony, and were received with the highest honours. From thence they proceeded to Dresden, where they were met by their imperial majesties the emperor and empress of Austria. The emperor of Russia was then at Wilna, where the first army under the command of count Barclay de Tolly was cantoned.

On the 29th of May the emperors of France and Austria departed from Dresden: the former proceeded towards the Vistula to take the command of his army, the latter returned to Vienna. The king of Prussia, who had attended at the interview, left that city on the following day: the empress of France, after remaining a few days at Dresden, returned to Paris. On the 6th of June Napoleon passed the Vistula, when he published a declaration, announcing his determination of restoring the kingdom of Poland, and placing the duke of Wurtzburg on the throne; at the same time inviting all the Poles to rally round his standard. The French emperor, however, attempted to the last moment to bring the Russian monarch into his views by negotiation: the latter, however, adhering to his former declaration made by prince Kurákin, insisted on the evacuation of



Prussia by the French troops as the basis of negotiation ; on which Napoleon ordered his army to march for the purpose of crossing the Niemen.

In commencing the campaign, the emperor of France endeavoured to excite the courage of his troops by issuing a proclamation, in which he manifested his usual confidence as to the issue of the campaign. "Russia," said he, "is dragged along by a fatality ! her destinies must be accomplished. Should she consider us as degenerated ? Are we no longer to be regarded as the soldiers of Austerlitz ? She offers us the alternative of dishonour or war. The choice cannot admit of hesitation. Let us, then, march forward ! Let us pass the Niemen ! Let us carry the war into her territory ! The second war of Poland will be as glorious to the French arms as the first." In placing before the eyes of his followers a prospect of splendid success, the calculations of the French emperor had frequently proved correct, and his promises had often been realized ; but he had now attained to the meridian of his glory : a tide of prosperity and success, flowing for so many years without interruption, had induced him to imagine that victory was inseparably attached to his banners ; and he seems to have thought it impossible that fortune ever could frown where she had so long been accustomed to smile.

This proclamation was issued on the 22d of June, and on the following day the army was put in motion. At two o'clock in the morning the

emperor Napoleon, accompanied by a general of engineers, inspected the banks of the Niemen; and on the same day Murat king of Naples, who commanded the cavalry, advanced within six miles of that river. The different corps commanded by the viceroy of Italy, the prince of Eckmuhl, the duke d'Elchingen, the duke de Reggio, the duke of Tarentum, and prince Poniatowski, made corresponding movements; and the pontoon train also arrived within six miles of the Niemen. The 5th, 7th, and 8th corps, commanded by the king of Westphalia, had proceeded no farther than Novogorod, about half way between the Vistula and the Niemen; and the first Austrian corps, under the prince Schwarzenberg, was near Lublin, at an almost equal distance between Lemburg and Warsaw. The duke of Belluno, with the 9th corps and some other troops, remained in reserve, occupying the country between the Elbe and Oder.

At this crisis a Polish diet was held at Warsaw under the sanction of the French emperor, which, resolving itself into "a general confederation of Poland," published on the 1st of July a memorable declaration, announcing that the kingdom of Poland and the Polish nation were re-established, and appointing a council of state, consisting of eleven members, for the administration of affairs. By one of the articles the king of Saxony, as grand-duke of Warsaw, was invited by deputation to accede to the confederacy; and by another the emperor Napoleon was entreated "to encircle

reviving Poland with his powerful protection." The diet disclaimed all vindictive retrospection, saying, "that it cannot regard as a true Pole whosoever shall search into the past for motives of accusation or division." The deputies sent by the diet to the French emperor at Wilna, in the audience with which they were favoured, July 12th, declared that "the honour and interest of France required the re-establishment of Poland." To this bold truth Napoleon returned an answer replete with artful evasion: "He highly applauded the patriotism of the diet, and had he reigned during the first, second, or third partition, he would have armed all his people in their support; but in his situation he had many interests to conciliate, and many duties to perform: he notwithstanding *authorized* the efforts they wished to make; and if they were unanimous, they might conceive the hope of reducing their enemies to acknowledge their rights; but he had guaranteed to the emperor of Austria the integrity of his dominions. Be animated," said he, "with the same spirit that I have seen in Great Poland, and Providence will crown with success your holy cause, and recompense that devotion to your country which has acquired you so many claims to my esteem and protection."

A more favourable opportunity could never occur of restoring Poland to its just rank among the nations; but Napoleon merely aimed to gain the aid of the Polish armies by flattery; and though he subsequently affirmed it to have been

his intention to re-establish the kingdom of Poland, and to place prince Poniatowski upon the throne, "in order to oppose a barrier to that formidable empire which threatened to overwhelm all Europe," there exists no trace of any such design in his language or conduct at this period.

The plan which the Russians had formed, and according to which they resolved to conduct the present campaign, was, to resist the progress of the invader at all points where a stand could easily be made without risking a general engagement; to lay waste the country through which he should aim to penetrate; to harass him as he advanced; and to cut off his supplies. Napoleon encountered no formidable resistance in his rapid advance to Wilna, the capital of Russian Poland, which he entered on the 28th of June, and from whence he issued the proclamation above-mentioned; but a division of the French army under Macdonald received a severe check from general Essen, to whom the defence of Riga was intrusted. Count Witgenstein also defeated marshal Oudinot and the Bavarian general Wrede, at Polotsk, after a conflict of twelve hours, in which the enemy lost 10,000 men in killed and wounded: thus were they foiled in their attempts to open a passage to St Petersburg.

While these things were transacting, the emperor of France directed his attention to the main Russian army, which, on the 17th of August, he attacked at Smolensko. After a furious contest, the Russians retired from the city, which the

French on their entrance found burning and in ruins. Napoleon gave vent to his chagrin by exclaiming—"Never was a war prosecuted with such ferocity; never did defence put on so hostile a shape against the common feelings of self-preservation! These people treat their own country as if they were its enemies!" He certainly had encountered no such obstacles in either of his marches to Vienna.

The Russian army now retired upon Viasma followed by the rear-guard, which had been nearly intercepted by marshal Ney; but having received a seasonable reinforcement, they were enabled to repulse him. Viasma not being considered tenable, every thing in it which could be considered of use to the enemy was destroyed, and the army took up a position near Moscow. At this juncture the veteran general Kutusoff was called from his retirement at St Petersburg to take the chief command of the army. On his way to head-quarters he passed through Moscow, where he had an interview with count Rostopchin, the governor. Arriving at head-quarters on the 29th August, he put the army in motion, and halted it on the 31st near the village of Borodino, on the great road leading to the capital, where he determined to hazard a battle.

The French entered Viasma on the 30th of August, and did not advance till the 4th of September. It was remarked that Napoleon, on being apprized that Kutusoff was opposed to him, became more cautious in his movements, and that

he was more than usually anxious for the arrival of reinforcements. The interval of preparation, however, was no longer than was necessary for a conflict between two armies, each amounting to more than 120,000 men. It commenced on the morning of the 7th of September, by a tremendous attack on the Russian left, against which nearly one-half of the French force was directed; while marshal Ney bore down on the centre, and Beauharnois assailed the right. Kutusoff finding that his left, after a combat of three hours, was giving way, reinforced it with grenadiers and cavalry from the reserve, when a desperate effort was made to recover the lost position, from which the French were at length driven. Beauharnois made repeated efforts to carry the village of Borodino and the redoubts which covered it, but he was ultimately repulsed with great loss. The Russians were then enabled to reinforce their centre, where the battle raged with great fury until night, when the French withdrew at all points, leaving them masters of the field. They estimated their own loss at 40,000 in killed and wounded, and that of the enemy at 60,000. Napoleon himself, however, gave a very different account of this action to O'Meara. "I attacked the Russians," said he, "whose army was 250,000 strong, intrenched up to their necks, with 90,000 men, and totally defeated them: 70,000 Russians lay upon the field." Among the slain were generals Tonchhoff and Konovitzzen: Prince Bragation afterwards died of his wounds. Of the French

generals, Montbrun was killed, and twelve others dangerously wounded.

After this dearly purchased victory, Kutasoff found himself unable to make head against the fresh troops which his antagonist was soon enabled to bring forward. He therefore ordered Moscow to be evacuated, and retired with his army beyond it, to protect the rich provinces of Toulá and Kaluga, where he maintained an uninterrupted communication with Tschichagoff; while to the north of the capital, Winzingerode, by the occupation of Twer, completed the line which was thus extended round the enemy. The painful but necessary measure of withdrawing from their homes in Moscow 200,000 human beings of both sexes, and of every age, was carried into effect by count Rostopchin, who placed himself at the head of 40,000 of its brave inhabitants, and proceeded to join the Russian army.

Rostopchin had a villa in the neighbourhood of Moscow, to which he set fire with his own hands, having affixed the following notification to one of its gates: "FRENCHMEN! for eight years I found pleasure in embellishing this country retreat. I lived here in perfect happiness within the bosom of my family, and those around me largely partook of my felicity. But you approach; the peasantry of this domain, to the number of 1720 human beings, fly for mercy, and I set fire to my house. We abandon all, we consume all, that neither ourselves nor our habitations may be polluted by your presence. FRENCHMEN! I left

to your rapacity two of my houses in Moscow, full of furniture and valuables, to the amount of half a million of roubles. Here you will find nothing but ashes."

The advanced guard of the French, under Murat and Beauharnois, entered Moscow on the 14th of September, and soon overpowered the small band which had lingered in the ancient palace of the czars, called the Kremlin. The deserted city was discovered to be on fire in several places; and the French soldiers, eagerly seeking their long promised plunder, rather increased than checked the conflagration. The French emperor was waiting at the barrier on the Smolensko road, to receive the homage of the constituted authorities ere he made his triumphal entry. A Polish general, whom he sent to remind the citizens of their duty, returned with information that there were no constituted authorities, and that Moscow would soon be a heap of ruins. The mortified conqueror entered without parade on the following day, and took up his residence in the Kremlin. At this moment the second Charlemagne (for such he affected to be thought) had reached the zenith of his fortune. From the elevated heights of the Kremlin the French emperor beheld, as he thought, the reward and termination of his labours; and when first the golden domes and spires of Moscow rose to his view, he is said to have exclaimed exultingly, "All this is yours!" The splendour of the scene appears to have confounded his faculties; and his pride and presump-



tion overbalancing the obvious considerations of prudence, he persisted in maintaining his situation amidst the ruins of Moscow. Of the consequences which now ensued, Napoleon himself has left us a narrative sufficiently interesting to entitle it to insertion in this place.

“ I was now in the midst of a fine city, provisioned for a year ; for in Russia they always lay in provisions for several months before the frost sets in. Stores of all kinds were in plenty. The houses of the inhabitants were well provided, and many had even left their servants to attend upon us. In most of them there was a note left by the proprietor, begging of the French officers who took possession to be careful of their furniture and other effects ; that they had left every article necessary for our wants, and hoped to return in a few days, when the emperor Alexander had accommodated matters, at which time they would be happy to see us. Many ladies remained behind. They knew that I had been in Berlin and Vienna with my armies, and that no injury had been done to the inhabitants ; and, moreover, they expected a speedy peace. We were in hopes of enjoying ourselves in winter quarters, with every prospect of success in the spring.

“ Two days after our arrival a fire was discovered, which at first was not thought to be alarming, but to have been caused by the soldiers kindling their fires too near the houses, which were chiefly of wood. I was angry at this, and issued very strict orders to the commandants

of regiments and others. The next day it had increased, but still not so as to create serious alarm. However, afraid that it might gain upon us, I went out on horseback, and gave every direction to extinguish it. The next morning a violent wind arose, and the fire spread with the greatest rapidity. Some hundred miscreants, hired for that purpose, dispersed themselves in different parts of the town, and with matches, which they concealed under their cloaks, set fire to as many houses to windward as they could, which was easily done, in consequence of the combustible materials of which they were built. This, together with the violence of the wind, rendered every effort to extinguish the fire ineffectual. I myself narrowly escaped with life.

“In order to shew an example, I ventured into the midst of the flames, and had my hair and eye-brows singed, and my clothes burnt off my back; but it was in vain, as they had destroyed most of the pumps, of which there were above a thousand: out of all these, I believe that we could only find one that was serviceable. Besides, the wretches that had been hired by Rostopchin ran about in every quarter, disseminating fire with their matches, in which they were but too much assisted by the wind. This terrible conflagration ruined every thing. I was prepared for all but this: it was unforeseen; for who would have thought that a nation would have set its capital on fire? The inhabitants themselves, however, did all they could to extinguish it, and

several of them perished in their endeavours. They also brought before us numbers of the incendiaries with their matches, and I caused about two hundred of these wretches to be shot.

“ Had it not been for this fatal fire, I possessed every thing my army wanted : excellent winter quarters, stores of all kinds were in plenty, and the next year would have decided it. Alexander would have made peace, or I would have been in Petersburg. Several of the generals were burnt out of their beds. I myself remained in the Kremlin until surrounded by flames. The fire advanced, seized the Chinese and India warehouses, and several stores of oil and spirits, which burst forth in flames, and overwhelmed every thing. I then retired to a country house of the emperor Alexander, distant about a league from Moscow ; and you may figure to yourself the intensity of the fire, when I tell you, that you could scarcely bear your hands upon the walls or the windows on the side next to Moscow, in consequence of their heated state. *It was the spectacle of a sea and billows of fire, a sky and clouds of flame ; mountains of red rolling flames, like immense waves of the sea, alternately bursting forth and elevating themselves to skies of fire, and then sinking into the ocean of flame below. Oh ! it was the most grand, the most sublime, and the most terrific sight the world ever beheld !!!*”

This event was evidently a severe disappointment to the French emperor, who lingered about this devoted city as if it had still been his inten-

tion to retain it. At length, however, the unshaken resolution of the Russians to persist in their system of making all sacrifices rather than submit to a conqueror; the assemblage of fresh bodies of their troops around Moscow, and the approach of inclement seasons, reminded him of the folly and danger of prolonging his stay. By a prompt retreat he might have secured winter-quarters in Poland; but his pride revolted at a measure now dictated alike by policy and humanity. Urged at length by the clamours of his soldiers, he sent Lauriston with a flag of truce to the Russian head-quarters, announcing his readiness to treat. The answer returned was, that no terms could be entered into while an enemy remained in the Russian territory. The roads leading to Moscow were now occupied by detached corps, who cut off the supplies, dispersed the straggling parties of the French, and took many prisoners.

Napoléon sent Lauriston a second time to demand, that if the Russian general would not listen to a negociation, he should forward a letter to the emperor Alexander. "I will do that," replied Kutusoff, "provided the word *Peace* is not expressed in the letter. I would not be a party to such an insult on my sovereign, by forwarding a proposal which he would order to be instantly destroyed. You already know on what terms offers of peace shall be attended to." The clamours of the French soldiers still increased; their foreign auxiliaries deserted by thousands, and

made known the extent of their distresses. Lauriston was sent a third time to the Russian headquarters, with proposals for an armistice, and an offer that the French should evacuate Moscow, and take up a position in the neighbourhood, where the terms of a treaty might be afterwards arranged. The answer was, "It is not time for us to grant either armistice or negotiation, as the campaign on our part is but just opening." Thus foiled in all his attempts at procuring an armistice, Napoleon soon afterwards announced his intention of leading his army into other provinces until the return of spring, when he would advance on St. Petersburg, and erase the name of Russia from the list of European nations. He then indulged his soldiers with an eight days' pillage of Moscow; and having wasted five irreparable weeks in that scene of desolation and despair, he commenced his retreat, leaving a force to blow up the Kremlin. General Ilievsky, however, arrived in time to prevent the completion of this outrage; and on the 23d. of October, the exiled inhabitants of Moscow began to return to their desolated city.

Dividing his forces, Murat and Beauharnois, with 50,000 men, were ordered to attack the grand army of the Russians, under Kutusoff, while the emperor himself, with the remainder, took the route to Minsk. The former met with a severe repulse; and nothing was now thought of but how to quit a country which they had so lately entered in triumph. Scarcely could they

hazard a march without a battle; and thus harassed, retreat became more and more difficult. Minsk itself was obliged to surrender. A stand was attempted at Viasma, but without success; and the French, dispirited and weary, were driven from their positions with much slaughter. The ensuing night was rendered dreadfully memorable by a prodigious fall of snow; and from this period ensued a series of terrible disasters. His own account of this matter, dictated while at St Helena, will best describe the shocking scene; and the reader shall have it in his own words.

“ I was a few days too late :—I had made a calculation of the weather for fifty years before, and the extreme cold had never commenced until about the 20th of December, twenty days later than it began this time. While I was at Moscow, the cold was at three of the thermometer, and was such as the French could with pleasure bear. But on the march the thermometer sunk eighteen degrees, and consequently nearly all the horses perished. In one night I lost 30,000. The artillery, of which I had 500 pieces, was in a great measure obliged to be abandoned: neither ammunition nor provisions could be carried. We could not, for want of horses, make a *reconnaissance*, or send out an advance of men on horseback to recover the way. The soldiers lost their spirits and their senses, and fell into confusion. The most trifling circumstance alarmed them. Four or five men were sufficient to terrify a whole battalion. Instead of keeping together,

they wandered about in search of fire. Parties, when sent out on duty in advance, abandoning their posts, went to seek the means of warming themselves in the houses. They separated in all directions, became helpless, and fell an easy prey to the enemy. Others lay down, fell asleep, a little blood came from their nostrils, and sleeping, they died. In this manner thousands perished. The Poles saved some of their horses and artillery, but the French, and the soldiers of the other nations, were no longer the same men. In particular the cavalry suffered. Out of 40,000, I do not think that 3000 were saved."

Napoleon reached Smolensko on the 9th of November, and remained there until the 15th, when he set out for Krasnoi. Davoust, who followed him, after blowing up the ramparts, was beaten by Milarodavich on the 15th, and escaped with the loss of 4000 killed and wounded, and 9000 taken prisoners, with 70 pieces of cannon. He also lost the whole of his baggage, three standards, and his *bâton de maréchal*. Ney, who left Smolensko with the rear-guard on the day of battle, was surprised by the victorious Russians, and compelled to fly with a small proportion of his staff, leaving 11,000 of his troops in the hands of his pursuers. In the mean time, the Russian general Witgenstein, after a series of successes against the corps of St Cyr, Oudinot, and Victor, advanced from Polotsk, and on the 8th of November reached Vitepsk, where he was informed of the retreat of the grand French army. On the

1811 he was informed of the flight of the Austrian and Saxon auxiliaries; and of the rapid advance of the Russians in pursuit. Wittgenstein was soon in communication with Platoff and the commander-in-chief, so that the whole force of the Russian empire was now directly co-operating against the retreating enemy.

After quitting Krasnoi, the French emperor was informed that his stores at Minsk were in the hands of the Russians, that his Polish general Dombroski was routed, that the corps of Oudinot and Victor were dispersed, and that the Russian grand army, the army of the Dwina on its left and that of the Dniubé on its right, were closing upon him. To secure his escape he ordered two bridges to be thrown over the Beresina at Studeniz and Vaselova. Scarcely had he passed the river with his guard at the latter point, when Wittgenstein opened a cannonade on the troops who were preparing to follow. They rushed in crowds towards the bridge: it was blown up by Napoleon's order. A shout of despair followed the explosion. Numbers plunged into the stream and disappeared amidst the floating masses of ice: 5000 lost their lives, and 13,000 were taken prisoners. The artillery, baggage, and ammunition, fell into the hands of the Russians, who on this occasion recovered the greater part of the plunder which the French had taken from their cities.

Having repaired the bridges the Russian armies advanced, and on the 12th of December prince Kutusoff established his head-quarters at Wilna.



The retreat of the French from the Beresina to the Niemen was attended with horrors, to which no parallel can be found in the annals of the world. For weeks before they quitted Moscow, they had no regular supplies of food; they were now exhausted by long marches; harassed by an indefatigable foe, and exposed to the severity of a Russian winter, with scarcely a garment to protect their freezing limbs. Their route might not unfrequently be traced by the dead bodies, which appeared like the mounds in a church-yard when covered with snow. The scene of a night-watch often exhibited at dawn a circle of the dying and the dead wrapped in rags, matting, old canvass, and even of raw hides stripped from the perished horses. The fugitives set fire to houses and villages; and many, when their joints were racked by the sudden transition from cold to heat, became frantic and fell into the flames. Numbers, with their feet frozen and half mortified, were left to perish in the snow. To pursue the detail of these complicated miseries would be tedious: the result may be calculated when it is known, that of the 300,000 or 400,000 men who composed the invading army, not more than 50,000, including the Saxon auxiliaries, repassed the Russian frontiers. Their total losses by capture, up to the 26th of December, as stated in the accounts published at St Petersburg, were: 41 generals, 1298 officers, 167,510 non-commissioned officers and privates, and 1431 pieces of cannon.

Napoleon did not remain to witness the last scene of the tragedy. He reached Wilna on the 7th of December, and having appointed Murat to the chief command, he departed for Warsaw, accompanied by Caulincourt, whence he made a rapid journey to Paris. He was the herald of his own discomfiture; and he proclaimed with circumstantial precision the results of a campaign, which did equal credit to his foresight as a politician, and to his skill as a general. He had lost an army the most formidable, perhaps, that ever any nation brought into the field, if we take into consideration not only its numbers, but also its complete organization and equipment, the perfection of its military discipline, and the talents and experience of its generals. The wars of modern Europe had furnished no instance of so extensive and complete a destruction; and history records no similar event since the invasion of Greece by Xerxes.

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## CHAPTER IX.

1812—1814.

THE conflagration of Moscow, and the destruction of the French army, were made known to the people of England while engaged in the ferment of a contested election. The sensation of astonishment and awe produced by these events, gave

for the relief of the sufferers in Russia.

After the Christmas recess, the attention of parliament was called to the origin and causes of the war between this country and the United States. On the 3d of February lord A. D. 1813. Castlereagh presented to the house of commons a collection of papers on the subject, accompanied by a declaration, issued on the 9th of January by the prince regent, containing a summary of the whole transactions, a vindication of the conduct of Great Britain towards America, and the following exposition of the principles on



motion by Mr. Grattan for referring them to a committee of the whole house, which was carried by 264 votes against 224. On the 30th April Mr. Grattan introduced a bill for the removal of the catholic disabilities, with certain regulations and exceptions. It encountered little opposition in the first and second reading; but on its passage through a committee, Mr. Abbot, the speaker, objected to that clause by which catholic gentlemen were permitted to sit in parliament; and referred to certain circumstances which gave reason to believe, that the ample concessions which the bill contemplated would fail to give satisfaction, in consequence of the conditions with which they were accompanied. The clause was rejected by a majority of 251 against 247, and the bill was abandoned.

On the 5th of May a measure was instituted for extending the provisions of the toleration act, by granting "further relief to persons differing in opinion from the church of England, with respect to certain penalties imposed by law on those who impugn the doctrine of the Holy Trinity." The bill introduced for this object by Mr. William Smith was read a third time on the 30th of July, when the archbishop of Canterbury, and the bishop of Chester, disclaiming all intention of opposing it, observed, that it had not been called for, by any attempt to impede the worship of Unitarians, or inflict penalties upon them. This enactment, to which ministers neither offered nor encouraged any opposition, was regarded as a

pleasing proof of the progress of religious toleration. The approaching expiration of the charter of the East India Company, concerning which so many petitions had been presented, once more excited the efforts of the commercial world to be admitted into a full participation of the advantages hitherto restricted to a monopoly, which, if at first beneficial, had long ceased to be so. Scarcely was there a port of any consequence which did not upon this occasion transmit a petition to parliament for throwing open the East India trade. But the India Company was now too closely identified with the State, to admit of the remotest prospect of success. From simple merchant adventurers, the Company had, by a monstrous anomaly, aspired to the character of conquerors; in which pernicious ambition they had been too much encouraged by the applause of the public, who delighted to hear of victories obtained over nabobs, nizams, peishwas, rajahs, and sultans, actuated solely by the intoxication of national vanity. The natural consequence of the almost perpetual wars in which the Honourable Company were involved, was precisely similar to that resulting from the same cause to the British nation itself—the creation of an enormous debt, far beyond any ordinary or visible means of liquidation. The Company was now dependent on the Government for that financial aid which was essential to its existence; and in return, the Government had acquired that military and poli-

tical patronage of the East, which, in conjunction with various other causes, had so dangerously disturbed the balance of the constitution.

In this state of things lord Castlereagh brought forward, in a committee of the whole house, his plan of regulation, including the prolongation of the charter, for the further term of twenty years from the 10th April 1814. The first resolution moved by this minister secured to the Company all its Indian territories north of the equator, with the exclusive trade to China; leaving the commerce of Hindostan open to the public on certain conditions, and to certain ports, by licence from the Company. But so long as the Company itself exists, the extension of the trade will, from obvious causes, be confined within comparatively narrow limits. An ecclesiastical establishment was also founded in India, consisting of a bishop and three archdeacons; and a wide scope was given to the zealous efforts of missionaries. The dividends of the Company were limited to ten and a half per cent, and the number of king's troops to be paid by the Company was restricted to 20,000, unless a larger force was required by the directors.

On the subject of finance, an important measure was proposed by Mr Vansittart on the 8d of March, in a committee of the whole house, which received the sanction of the legislature. After suggesting some arrangements of minor importance respecting the redemption of the land-tax, and an addition to the sum appropriated to the sinking fund, and

each new loan, he proceeded to unfold his plan, the general nature of which may be thus explained :—By the original constitution of the sinking fund, the stock purchased by the commissioners was not cancelled, but still considered to be their property; and the interest was regularly applied by them to the farther discharge of the national debt. This arrangement, securing an accumulation by compound interest, was now abolished; and the whole stock purchased by the commissioners, which was now stated at L.236,000,000, an amount exceeding that of the national debt when the fund was instituted, was to be cancelled, and the interest to become disposable for current services, or for paying the interest of new loans. An addition of L.867,968 was at the same time to be made to the sinking fund. It was also proposed, that when the new loans should in any year exceed the amount of the sinking fund, a new fund of two and a half per cent, instead of one per cent, should be created to provide for that surplus.

The budget was brought forward on the 31st of March, when the joint charge of supplies was stated at L.72,000,000, of which the proportion for Great Britain, with the addition of the separate charge, amounted to L.68,685,942. Of the ways and means the principal articles were, war taxes, L.21,000,000; exchequer bills funded, L.15,000,000; vote of credit, L.6,000,000; and a loan of L.21,000,000.

The treaty with Sweden was laid before parliament on the 11th of June; from which it



appeared, that in the recent convention between Russia and Sweden, the emperor Alexander, notwithstanding his deep sympathy for the sufferings of Denmark as inflicted by Great Britain, had not hesitated, when his own interests were at stake, to engage that Norway, which had been for ages united in a federal league with Denmark, should be transferred to Sweden in compensation for Finland, that power engaging to join the confederacy against France, and to furnish 30,000 troops, under the command of the crown-prince, for active service on the continent. To this compact Great Britain had by the present treaty become a party; moreover promising, in addition to a subsidy of L. 1,000,000, and the cession of the island of Guadaloupe, to aid by naval co-operation in the transfer of Norway, should Denmark continue in alliance with France. In return, British manufactures were to be admitted into the Swedish ports for twenty years at an *ad valorem* duty of one per cent only. This treaty, so far as related to Norway, was strongly opposed, as irreconcilable with public law and national honour. It was, however, sanctioned by majorities in both houses; and on the 22d of July parliament was prorogued by the regent in person, who expressed the highest satisfaction at their proceedings.

1. The campaign of this year in Spain commenced under favourable auspices: for the A.D. 1813. enemy not being able to obtain reinforcements from France, was compelled to act

on the defensive—a plan always ruinous to an invading army. Suchet alone attempted operations on a bolder scale, and on the 13th of April he made a general attack on the line of the allies, in which however he was repulsed with loss, and compelled to retire upon Villena. Before the end of May lord Wellington moved in great force by the route of Salamanca towards Madrid, the new king once more evacuating the capital, and retiring to Burgos. On the approach of the British commander, the enemy continued his march towards the Ebro, without any effort to maintain the city, or even the citadel of Burgos, upon which immense sums had been expended. The allies, by a sudden movement to the left, having crossed that river near to its source, in their pursuit found the French encamped in front of the town of Vittoria, under the command of Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by marshal Jourdan, Sault having been summoned to the aid of Napoleon in Germany.

On the 21st of June lord Wellington resolved upon the attack. The battle began with a severe contest for the heights of Arlanzon, on the left of the French position. These being at length carried by general Hill, he passed a rivulet which ran through the valley, as did general Picton at the head of another division. Nearly at the same time, general Graham on the opposite wing forced his passage over two bridges thrown across the stream, on which, after a severe contest, the whole French army retreated in good order on

Vittoria, whence they continued their march towards Pampeluna. As Vittoria was the grand depot of the French, a great number of cannon, and stores of all kinds to a vast amount, fell into the hands of the allies. After the defeat they had sustained, the retreat of the French became so rapid as not to permit them to carry off their artillery and baggage, the whole of which, amounting to 151 pieces of cannon, and 415 waggons of ammunition, fell into the hands of the victors. The loss of the allied army on this occasion was about 700 killed and 4000 wounded, the greater part of whom were British. Such was the battle of Vittoria, which added fresh laurels to the illustrious commander. The French retired by Pampeluna on the road of Roncesvallos; and being driven by sir Thomas Graham, who had taken Forosa, from all their strong posts, they at length crossed the Bidassoa by the bridge of Irun, and entered the French territory.

On the eastern coast of Spain events of a different kind were in the mean time passing. On the 31st of May sir John Murray embarked his force on board the English fleet on that station, and on the 3d of June invested Tarragona. After taking fort St. Philippe, on the Col de Balguer, which blocks the direct road from Forosa to Tarragona, and advancing his batteries against the besieged place, he received reports that Suchet was marching from Valencia for its relief, with forces superior in number and quality to his own. Without waiting for any certain tidings of the

enemy's approach, or information of his actual strength, he determined to avoid all conflict by a timely retreat, and accordingly reembarked his army, leaving his cannon in the batteries, though admiral Halloway was of opinion that they might have been brought off had he remained till night. The expedition then sailed back to Alicant, and Suchet did not fail to triumph in the result.

The centre of the French retreating army having still maintained itself on the Spanish side of the frontier, general Hill made an attack upon them with a combined force of British and Portuguese, and obliged them to withdraw into France. Marshal Soult, who was now constituted commander-in-chief of the French troops in Spain and the southern provinces of France, joined the army on the 18th July. On the 24th of that month he collected his right and left wings, and a part of his centre, at St Jean Pied de Port, to the amount of 30,000 or 40,000 men. He now made an attack on an English post at Roncesvallos, in which he succeeded, and other posts were consequently withdrawn. Various operations of attack and defence were now carried on during some successive days; and after considerable loss on both sides, the allied army, on the 1st of August, was nearly in its former position.

The siege of St Sebastian had, in the mean time, been proceeding under the conduct of sir Thomas Graham; and an unsuccessful attempt to storm had been made on the 25th July, which occasioned a severe loss of men. On the 31st

August, another attempt was undertaken by order of Lord Wellington, which, though attended with peculiar and unseen difficulties, succeeded, at the cost of 2,300 in killed and wounded. The importance of the place was proved by a vigorous effort for its relief, which was repulsed by the Spanish troops alone. The strong castle of St Sebastian was taken on the 18th of September, in the operations against which the British navy gave effectual assistance.

On the 7th of October lord Wellington entered France, by crossing the Bidassoa, which was performed at different fords, by a series of spirited actions against the enemy's defences. The strong fortress of Pampeluna, which had been blockaded from the time of the battle of Vittoria, was induced to accept of a capitulation on the 31st of October, the garrison remaining prisoners of war. This event having disengaged the right of the allied army from the service of covering the blockade, lord Wellington put in execution a plan which he had projected against the enemy, the object of which was to force their centre, and establish the allied army in the rear of their right. The attack was made by different columns on the 10th of November, and after a variety of actions which occupied the whole day, the purpose was attained at night. The French during the night quitted all their works and posts in front of St Jean de Leon, and crossed the Nivelle; and being pursued on the next day, they retired to an intrenched camp in front of Bayonne. The result

of this operation was, the expelling of the French from positions which they had been fortifying with great labour for three months, and taking from them 50 pieces of cannon, and 1400 prisoners.

On the 9th of December, the river Nive was crossed by a part of the allied army; and on the four following days several desperate attacks were made by the French during the completion of this passage, which were finally repelled, and the enemy, after great loss, withdrew to his intrenchments. The British and Portuguese, during these days, lost between 4000 and 5000 in killed, wounded, and missing. Thus the year closed with lord Wellington's obtaining a firm footing on the French territory.

Of the extraordinary and momentous events that were passing during all this period on the great theatre of continental warfare, the first to be noticed was an incident, chiefly important as it was the commencement of that political change which altered the whole state of European affairs. The Prussians, as allies to the French, had acted chiefly on the coast of the Baltic, and been employed in the siege of Riga. On the retreat of marshal Macdonald from that place, the Russian general Witgenstein, advancing along the Niemen, succeeded in cutting off from the marshal a body of Prussians of about 15,000 men, under the command of general D'Yorck, who entered into a convention, by which he agreed to remain neutral with the troops under his orders.

The king of Prussia was at present necessitated to appear to disapprove his general's conduct, though it is very probable that he secretly concurred in it. The French loudly exclaimed against it as treachery.

Witgenstein pursuing Macdonald, entered Königsberg without resistance on the 6th of January. Elbing, Marienburg, and other towns in that quarter, were deserted by the French and occupied by the Russians, who also carried on operations against the retreating Saxons and Austrians. At Königsberg a regency was established in the name of the king of Prussia, which issued a proclamation, calling on the people to come forward for the rescue of their prince and country from the French bondage; and a number of young men joined the troops under D'Yorck, who had been declared commander-in-chief of the patriotic army. The king himself in the end of January withdrew from Potsdam, where he was in the power of the French garrison at Berlin, and suddenly removed to Breslau. He there issued proclamations, summoning his subjects to take up arms in defence of their king and country, but without specifying the enemy against whom they were to be employed. His purpose, however, was become so manifest, that the viceroy of Italy, Eugene Beauharnois, then at Berlin, forbade recruiting in that capital.

The emperor of Russia had now put himself at the head of the main army, which continued to advance. On the 8th of February, general

Milorodavich entered Warsaw, being met by a deputation from the city which presented to him the keys. Dantzic and Thorn were now invested by them, and Alexander reached Polotsk. The Austrians concluded an unlimited truce, and drew into Galicia. The Saxons endeavoured to profit by this circumstance, and retreat into their own country behind the Austrians, but they were pursued, and many of them were taken prisoners. The king of Prussia now assumed the part of a mediator between the belligerent powers, and on the 15th of February made proposals for a truce, which do not appear to have been attended to; and on the 22d he took the decisive step of forming a treaty of alliance offensive and defensive with the emperor of Russia. The two sovereigns had an interview at Breslau in March, from which city the king of Prussia issued a proclamation to his subjects, touching upon the motives which had induced him to join his arms to those of Russia. The essence of it is contained in the following sentence:—

"We bent under the superior power of France. That peace which deprived me of half my subjects, procured us no blessings; on the contrary, it was more injurious to us than war itself."

The moral question respecting this change was afterwards discussed at length between the Prussian minister at Paris and the duke of Bassano; nor was it difficult to prove abuse of power on the one part, and breach of engagement on the other: but when did a vanquished power decline



a favourable opportunity of recovering its rank, and annulling forced concessions.

On the 8th of March the French troops evacuated Berlin, which was entered by the Russians on the following day. General Morand, who had occupied Swedish Pomerania with a small body of troops, now followed the French main army, joined by those who had left Hamburg, which city was entered by the Russian general Tettenborne on the 18th. Morand was overtaken in his retreat, and killed in battle, and all his remaining troops were made prisoners. The king of Saxony had quitted Dresden on the approach of the Russians, a corps of whom took possession of the part of the city on the right bank of the Elbe. A Swedish force advanced to Stralsund, and, in April, Thorn surrendered to the Russians.

Whilst the reflux of war from the ruins of Moscow was thus rapidly rolling on, Napoleon, with unabated activity and confidence, was busily employed at Paris in mustering all the force of the great dominion of which he was still absolute master, for a powerful effort to recover his lost ground. By a *senatus consultum* of the 11th of January, 350,000 men were placed at his disposal. He adjusted his differences with the Roman See in conferences held with the pope at Fontainebleau, where a new concordat was signed between them. He caused the empress to be declared regent during his absence, published a flattering *appris* of the state of the French empire, and

having thus reanimated the buoyant spirits of the nation, he on the 15th of April set out for the army. (The French forces, formidable in number and appointment, consisted of twelve corps, besides the imperial guards. The viceroy of Italy was appointed second in command, and Berthier chief of the staff. The several corps were placed under marshals and generals long known in the service, and no traces appeared of the Russian disasters.)

The march of the French divisions was directed so as to form a junction between them near Jena and upon the Saale. The allied armies of Russians and Prussians had for some time been concentrating near Leipsic: they were under the command of general Wittenstein, the successor of the veteran Kutusoff, who died while on his march. The French having crossed the Saale, a junction was made of the Russians and Prussians between Leipsic and Altenburg, the sovereign of each being present with his troops, while Napoleon took the command of his own army. On the 2d of May a general engagement occurred at Gross-Groschen, near the plain of Lutzen, of which the result after much slaughter was, that the allies kept the field, and the French retreated. The consequences however were, the subsequent advance of the French to the Elbe, which river they crossed at Dresden and Meissen, the establishment of Napoleon's head-quarters at Dresden, and the occupation of Leipsic. The king of Saxony at this time joined his forces to those of

France. The French pushed on through a series of bloody and well-contested actions, of which very different accounts were given by the two parties. The principal of these was an attack by Napoleon with his whole force, May 18th, on the allies in advance of Wurtzen and Hochkirchen, which terminated in a retreat of the allied army, but in good order. The advance of the French divisions through Silesia towards the Oder, met with no effectual resistance, and on the 1st of June Lauriston entered Breslau.

While these things were transacting, another accession was made to the league against France. Sweden, which, though gradually liberating herself from the dictation of France, had only asserted an independent neutrality, was induced, by the turn which affairs had taken, openly to join the cause of the allies. In March a subsidy of treaty and alliance was signed between the courts of Stockholm and London, of which mention has already been made under the parliamentary proceedings of the year; and the Swedes were now active in their preparations to fulfil their part of the obligation, but the addition of their weight was little felt in this early part of the campaign. The imminent danger of Hamburg, which had been deserted by the Russians, and was now threatened by a French army under Davoust, induced the Swedes to throw a body of men into the city for its defence; but the now avowed hostility of Denmark occasioned their recall, and that unfor-

tinate city was on the 30th of May repossessed by the French, in conjunction with the Danes. Notwithstanding a temporary tide of success, the emperor of France was not insensible of the dangers that were accumulating around him, and he wished for a peace which might still leave him at the head of the European potentates. He consequently, through the medium of Austria, transmitted to the emperor Alexander proposals for an armistice, preparatory to a congress to be holden at Prague with a view to a general pacification. The armistice was mutually ratified on the 4th of June, and a demarcation of limits between the armies was made, according to their present occupation. The negotiations at Prague proceeded but slowly, and a prolongation of the armistice took place, which carried it to the 10th of August. All Germany in the mean time resounded with preparations for war; but the public attention was chiefly attracted to those of Austria, which were on such a scale as manifestly denoted an intention of taking a leading part in the future transactions.

The armistice at length terminated without having opened the road to peace; and on the 11th of August count Metternich, the Austrian minister at the congress of Prague, delivered to the French minister a declaration of war on the part of his court against France. The usurpations of the French emperor in the north of Germany, and the impossibility of a lasting peace in Europe whilst he persisted in the same system of policy,

were the principal reasons produced in justification of this measure; the real inducement to which was doubtless the prospect of a favourable opportunity for reducing a power grown too great for the security and independence of the rest of the European continent. This declaration was followed by a treaty of amity and defensive alliance between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg. Russia and Prussia had previously formed treaties with Great Britain, by which the latter engaged herself to pay sums of money to each, in consideration of the armies they were to bring into the field.

The plan of the allies, on the resumption of hostilities, was to drive back the French from their forward position on the right bank of the Elbe, and in Lusatia and Silesia, by attacks on their front and flank. And after various actions they so far succeeded, that on the 26th the advanced guards of the allies encamped on the heights above Dresden, into the suburbs of which city and its outworks the French had withdrawn. During several months their engineers had been occupied in adding to the fortifications of the place, and Napoleon was within the walls with a force estimated at 130,000 men; it therefore seems to have been an injudicious measure on the part of the allies to make an attempt for carrying it by assault. This however was attempted on the 27th, and though conducted with undaunted valour, was repulsed with a great loss of men, which fell chiefly on the

Austrians. On the following day Napoleon led out his troops, supported by an immense artillery, to the attack of the allies. One of the incidents of the bloody action which ensued was a mortal wound received by the celebrated general Moreau, who had left his retreat in America to visit his comrade in arms the crown-prince of Sweden, and had joined that party whose cause he considered as that of public liberty. At the conclusion of a most severe combat the allies retired; and the extent of their loss may be estimated by their subsequent retrograde movements across the mountainous ridge which separates Saxony from Bohemia. They were followed by a large division of the French army, which, after some success, received an effectual check by an action in which general Vandamme was taken prisoner, with 10,000 men, and his artillery and baggage.

The allies now endeavoured to recover their ground, and beat back the French, who in different parts were making advantage of a temporary superiority. The crown-prince of Sweden now joined in the operations of the allies; and the active and intrepid marshal Blücher obtained that distinction which has attached so much glory to his name. Silesia was entirely delivered from the enemy. Saxony was re-entered by the Russians and Prussians. The Austrians again advanced from Bohemia; and at length the French measured back their steps to the Elbe, having sustained severe losses.

and no doubt that Napoleon soon to be defeated by the

Leipsic was now the point to which the principal efforts of the allies were directed; and Napoleon, on the 5th of October, quitted Dresden in company with the king of Saxony, and took post about five-and-twenty miles from Leipsic, where he concentrated his forces to the supposed number of 180,000 men. At this period an important accession was made to the strength of the allies by a treaty between Austria and Bavaria, in virtue of which 55,000 Bavarian troops were to act in conjunction with the Austrians. This power having been always favoured by the French as a counterpoise to the house of Austria, a stronger proof could not be given of the general concurrence of Germany to throw off the yoke of Napoleon, than its desertion of his alliance.

The grand contest for the city of Leipsic, for the decision of which a greater force was assembled than had almost ever acted on so confined a theatre, was now at hand. The united forces of Bernadotte (the crown-prince) and Blücher were posted on the north, between the Mulden and the Saale; while the Russians and Austrians, commanded by general Beningsen and the prince of Schwartzenburg, occupied an opposite line on the south. After various partial encounters and bold efforts, in a great degree successful, to surround the French, a most sanguinary engagement took place on the 16th of October, which, after much slaughter, left the opposing armies in nearly the same position they held at its commencement. The 17th passed chiefly in preparation

for the great action of the next day, which was directed upon the town itself. At its conclusion the French had lost 40,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners, with sixty-five pieces of cannon. The engagement was still raging when seventeen battalions of Westphalian and Saxon troops, the latter bringing with them twenty-two pieces of cannon, deserted to the allies, and ranging themselves under the standard of the crown-prince of Sweden, requested to be led against the French. This was decisive of the event; and it demonstrated the extravagance of that policy, which could transform the circles of Germany into provinces of the French empire.

The victorious army remained that night on their ground. On the morning of the 19th the king of Saxony sent a flag to the emperor Alexander, entreating him to spare the town; but it being regarded merely as a feint to gain time, an assault was immediately ordered. Leipsic was carried after a short resistance, and the allies entered two hours after Napoleon had made his escape. The king of Saxony with all his court, the French garrison, with the rear-guard of 30,000 men, and the sick and wounded computed at 22,000, with the magazines, stores, and artillery, were taken in the city. No success could be more complete. Disaster now followed disaster in quick succession; for as the French were retreating in great disorder over the Elster, the bridge was broken down with such precipitation that some thousands of their troops were either



captured or perished in attempting to cross the stream. Among these the most distinguished and most regretted individual was prince Poniatowski, who, by the acknowledgment even of his enemies, possessed every virtue and accomplishment which could add lustre to his birth.

Immense magazines were found in Leipzig and the king of Saxony, with the nobles who composed his court, were sent under an escort to Eysenach. Napoleon, with the remains of his army, still amounting to more than 70,000 men, directed his march to Erfurt and Hanau; at the last of which places he found the Bavarians under general Wrede, with a corps of Austrians, posted to intercept the passage. An encounter ensued, in which the allies were repulsed with considerable loss; and Napoleon continued his progress to Mentz, where he arrived on the 2d of November. The grand army of the allies, in the mean time, advanced to the Maine, and the sovereigns established their headquarters at Frankfort.

New causes of triumph now arose in rapid succession. The king of Wirtemberg, imitating the example of Bavaria, renounced the confederation of the Rhine, and united his troops with those of the allies. But that which was of more consequence, and less to be expected, was the revolution which at this time took place in Holland. On the 15th of November the people of Amsterdam, as it were by one consent, hoisted the Orange colours, and amidst enthusiastic shouts proclaimed the restoration of the ancient government. This

was followed by all the principal towns in the provinces of Holland and Utrecht; and a deputation was sent to London, inviting the prince of Orange, son to the stadtholder, who twenty years before had fled to England, to place himself at the head of his countrymen; and, embarking on board an English squadron, he made his entry into Amsterdam on the 3d of December. A considerable Russian force had now crossed the Yssel; and the French, after a short resistance, were expelled from the Seven Provinces, with the exception of Bergen-op-Zoom, and some other fortresses. In the proclamation issued by the prince of Orange from Amsterdam, it was observable that he assumed the title, unknown to his ancestors, of "Sovereign Prince of the United Netherlands."

The king of Denmark, though the most unassuming and unoffending monarch in Europe, was destined to be one of the principal victims of the war. Early in December, the crown-prince of Sweden, moving northward, compelled marshal Daboust to take refuge in Hamburg, and conquered Holstein; while the Russians overran Sleswic, the duchy which the Danish monarchs of the last century had violently and unjustly wrested from the paternal ancestors of the emperor of Russia. A change now unavoidably took place in the Danish councils, and Frederick V. as his only resource, concluded a treaty with Great Britain and Sweden. It was signed at Kiel on the 14th of January 1714, agreeable to

which Swedish Pomerania was ceded in exchange for Norway. England retained possession of the fleet, which she had so dearly purchased, and 10,000 Danes joined the army of the crown prince. In the south of Germany the arms of Austria had, during this interval, been no less successful. In October general Hillier crossed the Alps with an army of 60,000 men; and Trieste, Fiume, with the whole Dalmatian coast, were reduced, in which the English force in the Adriatic materially assisted.

On the retreat of Napoleon from Leipzig, a large body of French troops was left in Dresden, under the command of marshal St Cyr, which was augmented by fugitives from Vandamme's defeated army. They were soon reduced to a wretched condition by disease and want, and although their commander made demonstrations of resistance when blockaded by the Russians, he found it necessary, on the 12th of November, to surrender himself and his men prisoners of war to the amount of more than 40,000 men. In the same month the French garrisons in Stettin and its forts also capitulated; on the same conditions to the number of 7000 or 8000. Some of the men, who were Dutch, mounted the Orange cockade, and were sent to join their countrymen.

The Helvetic confederacy, of which Napoleon was the declared protector, seemed disposed in this crisis to preserve a neutrality; and the diet of the cantons in November issued a notification to this purpose, and decreed the levy of an army

to support it. They were, however, soon taught that a small power, in the midst of the contentions of great ones, cannot remain neutral at its pleasure. An Austrian army tented Switzerland, with a declaration that its neutrality could not be permitted by the allied powers, who were resolved to free her from foreign influence; and see her independent, before they could recognize her as neutral. At Bern, on the entry of count Bubna with a body of cavalry, the ancient government of the canton was restored. Geneva was afterwards occupied by the allies; and the Austrians, advancing to Basle and Schaffhausen, crossed the Rhine, and proceeded to the French frontier. They also passed that boundary river at other parts, and spread in Alsace and Franche-Comté.

France was now completely in a state of invasion, and Napoleon displayed his alarm by a decree issued on the 26th of December, announcing the mission of commissioners into the military divisions of the empire, armed with extraordinary powers for organizing the means of defence. This was probably occasioned by a declaration which the allied sovereigns issued from Frankfort on the 1st of December, explanatory of their views and policy; and it certainly discovered, in the height of their successes, very laudable moderation. "Victory," said they, "had conducted them to the banks of the Rhine; and the first use which they made of it was to offer peace. They desired that France might be great, and powerful; because, in a state of greatness and

strength, she constituted one of the foundations of the social edifice of Europe. They wished that France might be happy, that her commerce might revive, and that the arts might again flourish ; because a great people can only be tranquil in proportion as they are happy. They offered to confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France under kings never knew ; because a valiant nation does not fall from its rank by having in its turn experienced reverses in an obstinate and bloody contest, in which it had fought with its accustomed bravery. They desired a state of peace, which, by a wise partition of strength, by a just equilibrium, might preserve their people from the numberless calamities which had overwhelmed Europe for the last twenty years."

This was language so different from what had been previously expected, so just, so equitable, and even generous, as to diffuse a spirit of unanimity unknown since the origin of the war. The conduct of Napoleon, on the other hand, was such as to cause universal indignation and astonishment. He seemed to be incapable of forming an estimate of his own situation and danger. The treaty of Luneville was the basis, modified according to circumstances, to which the allied sovereigns were disposed to revert ; but the words and actions of the French emperor breathed nothing but war. On his return to Paris he caused the senate to pass decrees for levying 300,000 men, and for doubling the public contributions.

By way of embroiling matters in Spain, he on the 11th of December signed a treaty with his prisoner Ferdinand VII., recognizing his title to the crown, on condition of his reinstating in their honours and estates all who had acted under the authority of Joseph Buonaparte, of restoring the French prisoners, and causing the English to evacuate the Peninsula.

Alarmed at the dangers impending over the country, the legislative body ventured to suggest, through the medium of a committee of deputation, to the emperor on the 28th of December, "that the declaration of the allies should be met by a counter-manifesto on his part, distinctly avowing the sacrifices which he was willing to make for the repose of Europe." To this counsel, enforced by the urgent remonstrances of Talleyrand, he returned a haughty answer, accusing them of "drawing a line of distinction between the interests of the sovereign and the people," and forbade the printing of the report. To the council of state he complained in angry terms of this application of the legislative body. "They stun me," said he, "with their clamorous demands for peace. Instead of assisting me with all *their* efforts, they seek to obstruct *mine*." On the 31st of December 1813 he suddenly dissolved the assembly.

The unfortunate war between Great Britain and the United States of America in this year was productive of a variety of events, though they were for the most part on a small scale, and

therefore only a few of the principal of them can merit to be recorded. In consequence of the refusal of the president Maddison to accept the armistice which had been offered by Great Britain, hostilities were continued. It was nevertheless hoped, as the opposition to the war was very powerful in the northern and eastern states, that Mr Maddison, whose term of office was expiring, would not be re-elected. But in this they were mistaken: the president was again chosen by a majority of 128 to 89 votes; and on the meeting of congress at the beginning of the year 1818, his rejection of the armistice was fully approved. In fact, the flattering prospect of the conquest of Canada fascinated the imagination of the aspiring politicians of America, who saw in this war only visions of glory. But to make this subject intelligible to the reader, it will be necessary that we retrace our steps, and glance at the state of affairs in that quarter in the year 1812.

The temper of the government of the United States, at the commencement of the year 1812, rendered it evident that nothing could prevent extremities with Great Britain, except the repeal by the latter of its orders in council. The spring

sitting out of the American ships of war, and to prevent any more pledges from remaining in the power of an enemy on the commencement of hostilities. Efforts were still made by the moderate party to retard a breach; and on the 29th of May Mr Randolph brought the matter to a decision; by moving in the house of representatives a resolution, "that, under the present circumstances, it is inexpedient to resort to a war with Great Britain." This was negatived by 62 votes against 37.

On the 1st of June the president sent a long message to both houses of congress, enumerating all the provocations received from England, and recommending the subject to their early deliberations; and on the 4th he laid before them copies of the correspondence between Mr Foster and Mr Munroe, in which no expectation was held forth of any relaxation of its orders by the British government. The result of the subsequent discussions in congress was an act passed on the 18th June, declaring the *actual existence of war* between the United States and Great Britain. This momentous determination was carried in the house of representatives by a majority of 79 against 49; the votes for war being chiefly from the southern states of Pennsylvania, inclusive; those for peace from the eastern and northern, beginning with New York. The different feelings with respect to the event in these distinct portions of the States, were manifested by the tokens of mourning displayed on the day of the declaration



of war at Boston, in which city the commercial connexions with England, and an abhorrence of French principles, rendered the breach extremely unpopular; whereas, at Baltimore, where a number of privateers were fitting out to prey upon the British West India trade, a furious mob perpetrated cruel atrocities against some of the opposers of the war.

The conquest of the American at the declaration regarded as of in that country of the people and it commenced entered the province of Detroit, and the Indians, in a speedy success. He was foiled in British general for its relief, Hull was there 16th of August which he surrendered 33 pieces of force of British and Indians.

This was a severe mortification to the American government, which, in its sanguine hopes of conquest, had refused to continue an armistice which had been temporarily agreed upon between general Prevost, the governor-general of Canada.

and general Dearborn, commander-in-chief of the American forces in the northern states. The plan for the invasion of Canada, though disconcerted by this event, was by no means renounced; and a considerable American force being assembled in the neighbourhood of Niagara, general Wadsworth, on October 13th, made an attack

tain Dacres, and the American frigate Constitution, captain Hull, in which the former, being soon totally disabled by the enemy's very superior fire, was obliged to strike. The injury she had received was so great, that the captors set her on fire. On October 25th, the Macedonian, English frigate, captain Carden, descriing a large frigate

under American colours, bore down, and an action ensued which was continued with great bravery for more than two hours; when the English ship being reduced to the condition of a perfect wreck, and having incurred a heavy loss of men, to save the rest it was found necessary to surrender. Her antagonist proved to be the United States, commodore Decatur, ranking as a frigate, with the scantling of a 74 gun ship. In an action between two sloops of war, the advantage also was on the American side; and these events, so unusual to the British navy, though easily to be accounted for, were the source of as much mortification to one party, as triumph to the other. Numerous captures made by the American privateers among the West India islands, gave rise to complaints from the merchants and planters of Jamaica. Such were the principal circumstances of the first year of the American war.

Eager to retrieve the disasters of the former campaign, the American general Winchester, in the month of January 1813, advanced again with more than 1000 men to the attack of Fort Detroit. Opposed to him was colonel Procter, with 500 regulars and militia, and 600 Indians; when about 500 of the Americans, with their commander, surrendered prisoners, and the greater part of the rest, on their retreat, were cut off by the Indians. This misfortune, however, was compensated to them by the capture of York, the capital of Upper Canada, on Lake Ontario. General Dearborn arriving by water at the place

on the 27th of April, landed his troops, and commenced an attack on the works, defended by general Sheaffe at the head of 700 regulars and militia, and some Indians. At the same time the American flotilla, under commodore Chauncey, opened a fire on the British batteries from the harbour. An explosion took place, which obliged general Sheaffe to march out with the regulars, leaving the others to capitulate. Considerable public stores were taken.

The lakes of Canada a active scene of warfare, as actions took place on them. On the 23d of April colonel Procter, with a force of regulars, attacked a post of American Indians at Miami, a river flowing into Lake Erie, engaged in battering their canoes, and with a reinforcement of 1300 men, under the command of brigadier-general Clay, coming down the river, made an attack upon him, aided by a sally of the garrison. After a severe action they were repulsed, and the greater part were killed or taken. Colonel Procter, however, was not able to maintain his position.

The Americans, in force, made a landing on the 27th May at Fort George, on the Niagara, and proceeded to an attack of the place. After a gallant defence, it was evacuated by the commander, colonel Vincent, who retreated to a position near the head of Lake Ontario. In the mean time, the American army pushed forwards

to a large body, which rendered them masters of the Niagara frontier. They, however, met with several checks in attempting a further advance; and in June general Dearborn concentrated his forces at Fort George, where he remained in a strongly intrenched camp.

On Lake Ontario, the British naval commander Sir James Yeo, and the American commodore Chauncey, kept each other in check, without any decided superiority on either side. A British expedition to Lake Champlain was successful in destroying a number of military buildings, and a great quantity of naval and other stores. In the month of September, the Americans accomplished the object of gaining naval possession of the lakes, as far as concerned Lake Erie. Their commander on that station, commodore Peroy, on the 10th of that month brought to action the British, on the other the Canadian squadron, commanded by captain Barclay, and compelled the whole of it to surrender. The consequence of this disaster was the relinquishment by the British of the Michigan territory, with the exception of Fort Michilimackinack, and the abandonment of the posts in Upper Canada beyond Grand River.

ton passed the boundary into Lower Canada on the 21st of October, and proceeded along both banks of the Chateaugay river against the British advanced posts. On the 26th he was engaged by a much inferior force of British and Canadians, and so effectually checked, that he recrossed the frontier, and retreated to his former position. The American general Wilkinson, in co-operation with this attempt, embarked 10,000 men on Lake Ontario, and proceeded in batteaux down the St. Lawrence, with the intention of reaching Montreal. Sir G. Prevost, however, had placed a corps of observation to watch the movements of the Americans, which, being attacked by them, entirely defeated the assailants with considerable loss, after which they returned to their own shores. The final result of this combined expedition was, that both the provinces of Canada were freed from their invaders, who withdrew in December to winter-quarters within their own territories.

28. A successful attempt by the British against Fort Niagara, was the latest occurrence in these parts. On the 19th of December a body of about 500 men, under colonel Murray, was landed early in the morning near the fort, which by escalade carried the works, with a trifling loss, killing or taking prisoners all the garrison, and making prize of a large quantity of arms and stores. The American general Hull, arriving soon after at the town of Buffalo to check the farther progress of the British, was attacked on the 30th by general Riall, at the head of 1000 regulars and militia, and 400

Indians, and entirely routed. Buffalo, and the village of Black-rock, were afterwards committed to the flames, and the whole of the American frontier was left naked; Sir George Prevost, in a proclamation, representing these severities as a measure of retaliation for the destruction practised by the Americans in their invasion of Upper Canada, particularly their conflagration of Newark, a place containing 150 houses.

During the time that these transactions were going on in the northern part of America, a desultory warfare was maintained in the south, by the British blockading squadrons, which sent their light vessels up the rivers at the head of Chesapeake Bay, and made occasional attacks on the small towns and repositories of stores on their banks. These were generally successful, though the objects were of inconsiderable importance. A more important enterprise was undertaken against a post at Hampton, in Virginia, defended by a considerable corps of troops. On the 26th of June Sir S. Beckwith, who had embarked with the troops under his command on board admiral Cockburn's light squadron, turned the flank of the Americans unobserved, and, after a brisk action, gained possession of their camp and batteries. In

some contests with the enemy's vessels of war. — His Majesty's frigate the *Shannon*, Captain Broke, stationed off the port of Boston, had been brought to a state of the most perfect discipline by her commander, who assiduously exercised his men in the use of great and small arms. On the 1st of June Captain Broke stood close in with the Boston light-house, by way of a challenge to the United States' frigate the *Chesapeake*, a fine ship of forty-nine guns, full manned. The American accepted the proffered combat, and standing out of the harbour, confidently bore down on his foe. The ships were soon in close contact, when Captain Broke, perceiving a favourable opportunity, gave orders to board the *Chesapeake*, himself setting the example. The conflict was severe, but short: in two minutes the American's decks were cleared, her colours were hauled down, and the British flag hoisted over them; and she was led away in triumph, in the sight of a number of the inhabitants of Boston, who witnessed the action, and were expecting her victorious return.

The French navy was at this time so much reduced, that scarcely any opportunity was given during the year to the British seamen of displaying their superiority, in the combats of squadrons or single ships, against their accustomed foe; and their spirit of enterprise was chiefly exercised in attacks upon harbours and batteries on the sea-coast. Several spirited and successful actions of this kind in the Mediterranean and its branches



were reported, of which one of the most considerable was the capture of Fiume, in the Gulf of Venice. Admiral Freemantle, with a squadron under his command, on the 2d of July anchored opposite to this town, which was defended by four strong batteries. On the following day the ships weighed to attack the batteries, whilst a detachment of seamen and marines was sent to storm the mole-head. This party succeeding, they dashed into the town, drove before them the garrison, with the governor at its head, and with a very inconsiderable loss gained complete possession of the place. It was highly to the honour of the victors, that although the town was stormed in every part, not an individual was plundered; nor was any thing carried away except the goods afloat and the government stores. Of ninety vessels captured, more than half were restored to their owners.

As Great Britain was deeply interested in giving timely and efficient aid to her allies at this great crisis, parliament assembled for the dispatch of business so early as the 4th of November, when it was opened by the prince regent in a speech from the throne. Its topics were chiefly the new alliances against the power of France, together with their successes; and the war with America. On this occasion the following declaration made by his royal highness was highly honourable to him: "That no disposition to require from France sacrifices of any description inconsistent with her honour, or just pretensions

as a nation, will ever be on his part, or on that of his Majesty's allies, an obstacle to peace." With respect to America, his royal highness professed "his readiness to enter into discussions for the adjustment of the subsisting differences, upon principles not inconsistent with the established maxims of public law, and with the maritime rights of the British empire."

A loan at this early period of L. 22,000,000, proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, received the accustomed sanction of the house; and the foreign subsidies moved by Mr Vansittart passed without a dissentient voice. At this juncture, all the empires, kingdoms, and republics in Christendom, were included in the league against France, which could not without a miracle make any long or effective resistance against such an overwhelming superiority. In these circumstances, it did not seem necessary that Britain should exert herself farther than to maintain her own fleets and armies, much less that she should make her exchequer the bank of Europe. Yet the subsidies to Russia and Prussia were estimated at L. 5,000,000; to Spain and Portugal L. 4,000,000; L. 1,000,000 to Sweden, and L. 1,000,000 to Austria, with 100,000 stand of arms, and military stores in proportion. On the 20th of December, parliament broke up with a motion of adjournment to the 1st of March 1814.

On the 1st of March 1814, the king returned to London, and on the 2nd, he was proclaimed King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Town of Berwick, by the Lord Chancellor, Lord Eldon.

## CHAPTER X.

1814.

THE two preceding years had been signalized by events which, from their magnitude and importance, stand unparalleled in history; but things were now drawing to a crisis, and the first six months of the year 1814 are rendered for ever memorable by the decision of the grand contest, which, during so long a space of time, had held the fate of Europe in suspense, and by the happy termination of a series of tremendous convulsions, which had desolated and deluged with blood the finest and most flourishing countries on the continent of Europe.

At the commencement of this year the attention of all Europe was fixed upon France, which, from having been accustomed to send out her conquering legions to dictate laws to her neighbours, now saw her frontiers passed by powerful armies from those very states which she had compelled to purchase peace by submitting to her rule or co-operating in her plans. At this crisis of her fate, the man who had plunged her into this abyss of difficulty appeared to have lost his powers of exertion. The habits of despotism had obtained such an ascendancy over him, that he was incapable of listening to any advice which was not in correspondence with his own plans; and yet he seemed overwhelmed with the

business that pressed upon him. He talked much of what was to be done, but effected nothing; and when the allies entered France, they found his means of defence no further advanced than when he had crossed the Rhine on his retreat.

After the late success of the allies it required little preparation to bring their troops within the limits of France. Blucher, who beside the grand Prussian army had under his command some Russian and Saxon divisions, commenced the new year with an invasion of the French empire. General Bistram A. D. 1814.

had led the way, and, having forced the intrenchments near the Lahn, he crossed the Rhine, and took possession of Coblenz. Baron Sacken passed over near Mannheim, and count Langeron near Bingen; and in three days they killed or took prisoners 1500 men. They were received with joy by the people; and thus encouraged, the army prosecuted its march to the Moselle, and thence to the Marne, without any formidable opposition.

The Austrian army, too, strengthened by Russian and Bavarian divisions, and by the troops of Wirtemberg, invaded Alsace, under the direction of the prince of Schwartzemberg, who so far distributed his force as to threaten at the same moment Nancy, Langres, and Lyons. While he was making arrangements to co-operate with Blucher, the emperor Alexander and king of Prussia crossed the Rhine near Basle, with their respective bodies of reserve. General Witgen-

stein, with a strong corps of Cossacks, had already passed; and some smart actions had taken place, in which the Bavarian general De Roy, the prince of Wirtemberg, and count Plateff, particularly distinguished themselves.

Napoleon being informed that marshal Mortier had been attacked at Bar-sur-Aube, and compelled to retreat, he dexterously contrived to convert this disaster to his own purpose, by affirming that the French were victorious; and it was announced to the people of Paris, that this first advantage had electrified the army with joy! On his approach to St. Dizier, which the Prussians had seized, he ordered that village to be assaulted; and as it was occupied by only a small force, it was retaken without much difficulty. This trivial exploit was also extolled in the usual style of French exaggeration.

Brienne, the seat of that military school which called Napoleon its *élève*, was the theatre of a more important conflict. Here the French gave a challenge which Blucher readily accepted; and the engagement was maintained with vigour on each side. The allies endeavoured to profit by the deficiency of cavalry on the part of the French; but they gave in their turn an advantage to their adversaries, by attending less to the defence of the castle than to the operations of the field. An officer detached by marshal Victor was thus gratified with an opportunity of taking that post in the night. The town was involved in flames, either by means of the torches of the confederates

or from the vivid fire of the artillery incessantly played by the assailants; and, in the confusion which ensued, the troops of Blucher retreated, but not before they had made a vigorous effort to retake the castle.

Another trial of strength and courage quickly followed. On the 1st of February prince Blucher having received a reinforcement from the prince of Schwartzenberg, advanced with about 75,000 men, and engaged a nearly equal number of the enemy at La Rothière and other posts. That village formed the centre and the key of the French position: the right wing was stationed at Dionville, and the left at Chaumenil and Giberie, while the cavalry occupied an intervening plain. The prince of Wirtemberg, on this occasion, strenuously contended with marshal Victor; drove him from the left, was dislodged in his turn, but recovered and maintained the post. Count Guilly attacked the right, but could not force it before midnight. Sacken's movements were directed against the centre, and with great difficulty and loss he expelled the enemy from La Rothière, which he defended against a personal attempt of the French emperor for its recovery. After a considerable loss, the French made a retrograde movement towards Troyes and Arcis.

The Austrian and Prussian armies now continued their advance towards Paris in different directions. Prince Schwartzenberg proceeded along the banks of the Seine, while Blucher chiefly guided his course by the Marne. General

D'Yorck overtook the rear-guard of Macdonald's army, and gained such an advantage as led to the capture of Châlons. Napoleon having retreated to Nogent, the prince of Wirtemberg took possession of Troyes, and also reduced Sens.

Alarmed at the progress of Blucher, whose troops were within three marches of the capital, Napoleon, whose reputation had visibly declined, and whose genius was supposed to have deserted him, resolved to make a bold attempt to save the city of Paris, and retrieve his credit. An opportunity of signal success seemed to be afforded to his eager hopes, by the wide separation of one corps from another. He attacked and defeated at Champ-Aubert the division of general Almafiéff, too distantly situate to be seasonably assisted. General Sacken now advanced, and his division, aided by that of Yorck, fought with obstinacy at Montmirail, but with doubtful success. Napoleon affirmed, that in this battle the Russians and their associates fled in the greatest confusion; but, according to a British officer who was a spectator of the affair, the two armies remained at the termination of the action in their respective positions.

Blucher, who had remained inactive near Ventus during these three days of conflict, roused himself when he was apprized of the advance of Marmont, and attacking that general at Etoges, compelled him to retire. Recalled by this movement from the pursuit of Sacken and Yorek, Napoleon resolved to risk another engagement. He therefore

stopped Marmont in his retreat, and encouraged him to face his adversary at Vauchamp. The battle which ensued on the 14th February was almost entirely a contest between the French cavalry and the allied infantry. The former made a furious assault, which the latter coolly resisted by the formation of squares, presenting on every side a firm front. And so destructive was the fire from these compact bodies, which were supported by the occasional charges of a small corps of cavalry, that the French troops sometimes recoiled in disorder; but being amply reinforced, they made such bold and daring attacks, that Blücher found a retreat expedient and even necessary. For more than three leagues his men were incessantly harassed by their pursuers; yet it is affirmed that not a single square was broken. At sunset a strong body of cavalry made a circuit, and endeavoured to stop the retreat in front; but even this alarming movement did not discourage those who were determined to break through every obstacle. The artillery being admirably served, opened such a fire as concurred with well directed volleys of musketry to clear the line of march; and although a body of infantry at Etoges flanked the squares, and made considerable havoc, the greatest part of the harassed army escaped to Bergères. In such a retreat, it is natural to suppose the loss to have been very great; and it is not at all improbable that the killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to 6000 men.



The emperor of France, elated with this success, now turned his arms with redoubled confidence against the prince of Schwartzberg, who had sent detachments within forty miles of Paris, and had driven the enemy even to the left bank of the Seine. Count Witgenstein was now attacked at Nangis, by a force which he was too weak to withstand. As his loss was considerable, and as count Wrede was also dislodged from Villeneuve, the prince recalled his troops to the right bank. Three attacks were made on that part of his army which occupied Montereau and its vicinity, and all were repelled by the prince of Wirtemberg; but a fourth assault compelled him to retreat, without allowing him an opportunity of destroying the bridge, over which the French passed in great force.

Blücher, sensible of the danger of a march not sufficiently connected with the progress of the Austrian army, moved from Chalons with 55,000 men, with a view to a more effectual co-operation with the allies. He had only reached Meri, when Troyes was evacuated by the Austrians on the approach of Napoleon, who from his head-quarters in that city fulminated a vindictive proclamation, not only against all Frenchmen who accompanied the invading armies, but against all who, in the places occupied by the enemy, had worn the white cockade, or any other badge of the house of Bourbon.

At this juncture a new treaty of alliance and subsidy was signed, at Chaumont, by lord vis-

count Castlereagh, the representative of England, with prince Metternich, count Nesselrode, and baron Hardenberg, the ministers of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The treaty was dated on the 1st of March, but the promised *ultimatum* of Napoleon did not arrive till the 15th of that month, when it was presented by general Caulincourt to the congress at Chatillon. It demanded with imperial haughtiness the whole western bank of the Rhine, and part of the line of the Waal, including Nimeguen, for France; and Italy for Eugene Beauharnois. It was also demanded, that the other members of his family should be placed on foreign thrones. "By continuing the negotiations under such circumstances," say the allied powers, "they would have neglected what they owe to themselves: by signing a treaty on the principles of the French *projet*, they would have laid their arms in the hands of the conqueror." The *ultimatum* was peremptorily rejected, and the negotiation at Chatillon declared to be at an end.

Anxious to prevent a junction between the Austrian and Prussian armies, Napoleon marched against Blücher, and compelled him to alter his route; but when general Winzengerode had intimidated the commandant of Soissons into a surrender, and his division and that of Blücher had reinforced the field-marshal, he resolved to make a grand effort for victory. At the time his force extended from Laffaux to Craon, Soissons was assaulted with great fury. The French possessed

themselves of the greater part of the suburbs, and from the unroofed houses kept up an incessant fire on the Russians, who occupied the other portion, and also on those who manned the walls of the town; but their exertions were rendered fruitless by the obstinacy of the defence.

Napoleon now crossed the Aisne, and attacked the left wing of the allies with such vigour as to make a considerable impression; the consequence of which, after no small loss, was a retreat to Laon. In the front of that town Blucher concentrated his army, which considerably exceeded that of the French in numbers. The division of Bulow occupied the town itself, and an adjacent conical hill. The corps of Winzengerode, Sacken, and Langeron, formed the right; and the left positions were defended by Yorck and Kleist. On the 9th of March, before day-light, when the darkness was increased by a thick fog, the enemy commenced the attack, and seized two villages from which the fire of the infantry could reach Laon. Amidst this obscurity the battle raged for many hours, the right and the centre of the allies rather gaining than losing ground.

As soon as the day became clear, Blucher ordered the cavalry to move from the rear, and turn the left flank of the French; but the irregularity of the ground, and other difficulties, prevented the accomplishment of that operation. In the mean time, a numerous body of infantry, not unsupported by cavalry, marched against the left wing of the allies, pouring a dreadful fire

from forty pieces of artillery. To assist in repelling this attack, troops were sent from other parts of the field where the vigour of the contest began to decline, and the whole phalanx so firmly sustained the assault, and so ably profited by the advantage which a charge of cavalry presented, that the enemy fled at night in confusion and dismay. A brisk pursuit was carried on during the night; but the next morning, those divisions which had not retreated again engaged the centre and the right, and the villages and small woods were the scenes of spirited contests. No great disparity of fortune appeared on this day until evening, but then a select body advanced to a village near the walls, and failing in the attempt to storm it, retreated in disorder. Napoleon, who had been cautioned by some of his staff against the attack of Laon, now regretted that he had not taken the advice, and retired to Soissons, which had been lately recovered. For his disappointment in the result of these actions, he received some consolation at Rheims. This city had been taken by the allies, but it was recaptured by Marmont and Merlin, while he viewed the operations from a neighbouring hill. Pleased with the sight of a multitude of prisoners, and flattered with the congratulations of the citizens, he rested some days from his military labours.

While the destiny of France was yet suspended in the balance, the war exhibited some striking features in other scenes of action. Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden, pursuing the great

object of extinguishing the French interest in the north of Germany and in Denmark, met with rapid success, and after a series of military advantages, he forced the Danish court into a treaty of peace and alliance, which was signed on the 17th of January 1814. He even procured an explicit assent to the transfer of Norway, upon the mere promise of eventual compensation. After an active campaign, he stationed his troops in the Netherlands, and anxiously watched the progress of the grand army of the allies, keeping the Belgians in awe and preparing himself for offensive operations as occasion might require. The British troops in that territory were commanded by sir Thomas Graham, with whom general Bulow and a Prussian division co-operated. They dislodged the French from some posts near Antwerp; but the rigour of the season, and the want of a proper supply of artillery, deterred them from attempting to take the town itself. After some weeks of inactivity, the British general attempted the reduction of Bergen-op-Zoom, and sent four columns on that arduous service. Two of these divisions mounted the ramparts, and one even entered the body of the place; but the defence was so spirited, that the assailants suffered considerable loss, and about 1800 were taken prisoners.

In the south-west of France lord Wellington resumed offensive operations by the seizure of posts, which in that part of the country were numerous. Near Orthes, an attack took place

which was particularly spirited, and the resistance obstinate; but the division of general Hill prevailed. The enemy fled in the utmost confusion; and so great was the discouragement which ensued, that the French troops deserted in numbers. The whole British army passed the Adour, notwithstanding its swollen state, and the citadel of Bayonne was closely invested.

The movements of lord Wellington were now becoming daily more and more important to the common cause. His advance through a strong country, intersected with rivers, in the face of an active and vigilant adversary, was difficult, and every step required an action. The important city of Bordeaux on the 12th of March was occupied by a detachment under the command of marshal Beresford. This event was the result of a counter-revolutionary movement, favoured by the mayor and principal inhabitants, who mounted the white cockade, declared for the Bourbons, and claimed the protection of the combined army. The duke d'Angouleme, nephew to Louis XVI. and husband to his daughter, entered Bordeaux with the British troops, and was received with general acclamation. Lord Wellington then marching against Soult, the latter proceeded to Tarbes, from which place he was driven on the 20th with considerable loss.

Napoleon was left making his second advance against Blucher, whose army effected a junction with Winzengerode and Bulow at Soissons on the 3d of March. Blucher being attacked at Craon,

retreated to Laon, and on the 9th he was there attacked by Napoleon, who, after a severe action on that and the following day, retreated at all points, with the loss of forty-eight pieces of cannon, and between 5000 and 6000 prisoners. The intelligence of Blucher's success induced Schwarzenberg again to advance, and on the 21st his army took a position before Arcis-sur-Aube. The French, who were in force here, were attacked by the prince of Wirtemberg, and compelled to abandon the place after sustaining great loss.

The Austrian and French armies now made a desperate struggle for the possession of Vitry, where Napoleon was to be joined by the corps of Ney and Macdonald. He however took the road to St Dizier with his whole army, his plan being, as discovered by an intercepted letter, to push between the two allied armies, break their communication, and fall upon the rear of the Austrians. The discovery of his intentions produced an immediate determination of the allied generals to unite their forces, and march directly for Paris, leaving Winzengerode and Czernicheff, with a large body of cavalry and artillery, to harass Napoleon's rear.

On the 27th of March the grand allied army had its head-quarters at Coulomier. On the following day Blucher passed the Marne at Meaux. The alarm now became considerable in the capital; and Napoleon's brother, Joseph, whom he had left as his lieutenant-general, issued a proclamation, urging the Parisians to the defence of

their city, assuring them that the emperor was bringing a victorious army to their succour. Two days afterwards, viz. on the 29th, the corps of Marmont and Mortier entered Paris, in which there had been previously assembled a body of regular troops, with 30,000 national guards.

The allies now arrived in sight of the capital, and were posted with their right towards Montmartre, and their left towards the wood of Vincennes. Prince Schwartzemberg addressed a proclamation to the people of Paris, in which, acquainting them with the presence of the army of the allies before their city, their object being a sincere and lasting reconciliation with France; he said, "the attempts hitherto made to put an end to so many calamities have been fruitless, because there exists in the very power of the government which oppresses you, an insurmountable obstacle to peace." He further hinted the expectation of the allied powers, that the Parisians would declare in favour of "a salutary authority," and alluded to the conduct of the inhabitants of Bourdeaux; concluding with an assurance of paying every attention to the preservation and tranquillity of their city.

But the fate of the French emperor was not to be decided without another struggle. On the 30th of March the French army, under the command of Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by marshals Marmont and Mortier, took a position on the heights near Paris, in a long line, the centre of which was protected by several redoubts, and



more than a hundred and fifty pieces of cannon were planted along it. An attack was immediately determined on by the allies, and it was commenced by the two princes of Wirtemberg. After an obstinate resistance the opposite heights were carried : the success of the day, however, was for some time retarded by an accident which delayed the advance of Blücher's army ; but at length the positions gained by the allies, and the losses of the French, induced the latter to send a flag of truce proposing a cessation of hostilities, on the condition of their yielding all the ground without the barrier of Paris. The terms were accepted ; and in the evening count Nesselrode, the Russian minister, entered Paris.

By the capitulation that followed, Paris was evacuated on the morning of the 31st of March by the troops of Marmont and Mortier, carrying with them all their military appurtenances. The national guard, and the municipal gendarmerie, were entirely separated from the troops of the line ; the arsenals and magazines were left in their existing state. On the same day the allied sovereigns entered Paris, attended by their guards, the greatest order being everywhere preserved. The emperor of Russia then issued a declaration, expressing the intentions of himself and his colleagues. It affirmed, that they would no more treat with Napoleon Buonaparte, nor with any of his family ; that they respected the integrity of France as it existed under its legitimate kings ; and that they would recognize

and guarantee the constitution which France should adopt.

The senate assembled on the 1st of April, pursuant to an extraordinary convocation. Talleyrand, prince of Benevento, was appointed president, and their first act was to pass a decree for a provisional government, consisting of five persons, the president himself being at their head. By a second decree it was asserted, that in a constitutional monarchy the monarch exists only in virtue of the constitution or social compact. It then proceeds to prove the violation of that compact by Napoleon Buonaparte in various specified articles; and in fine it pronounced, "that he had forfeited the throne, and that the hereditary right established in his family was abolished."

While these events were transacting, Napoleon, thus out-manceuvred both in his military and political capacity, learnt with astonishment the danger which impended over the capital, and hastened with such expedition to its relief, that his purpose would have been effected had the capitulation been delayed for twenty-four hours. Of this fact marshal Marmont, who held the chief command of the army, could scarcely be unapprized. But finding the city of Paris in possession of the allies, he moved his army from Troyes by the way of Sens, and arriving at Fontenoy on the 30th, he retired in confusion to Fontainebleau, from whence, on the 4th of April, he sent a deputation to the senate, offering to submit

to its decision, and to that of the French people, and to abdicate in favour of his son.

His proposal being rejected, he from the height of presumption at once sunk into the depth of despair, and assented, without farther effort, to an absolute renunciation, for himself and his heirs, of the thrones of France and Italy, though he had still the means of continuing the contest by retreating upon the Loire, the armies commanded by Ney, Soult, and Angereau, being still entire. The emperor of Russia afterwards proposed to him to name a place which he should chuse as a residence for himself and his family, when he nominated Elba, an island lying on the coast of Tuscany. On the 11th of April a treaty was signed between him and the allied powers, by the articles of which he and his spouse Maria Louisa were to retain the imperial title for life, with the isle of Elba in full sovereignty; the empress likewise was to be put in possession of the duchies of Parma and Placentia, with succession to her son and descendants. A pension of two millions of francs was assigned to Napoleon, payable from the revenues of France, with the reversion of one million to the empress, and two millions and a half in various proportions to his relatives. To this treaty, however, the British ministry refused its concurrence, farther than respected the assignment of Elba to Napoleon, and of the Italian duchies to Maria Louisa. The provisional government now occupied itself in

preparing a constitutional code for the acceptance of Louis XVIII.

The war, however, which wanton ambition had excited, did not immediately cease on the reduction of Paris. The intelligence of the momentous proceedings that had there taken place was not transmitted with the requisite celerity to the southern parts of the country; and, even after it had been received, there is reason to believe it was concealed by the cruel malignity of Soult, who wished for an opportunity of taking vengeance on the English and their associates for daring to invade the territories of France. In a contest for the possession of Toulouse, much blood was shed, which however the allies obtained. In a sortie from Bayonne some loss was also sustained; but these hostilities at length yielded to an armistice. In Italy, an expedition was undertaken by lord William Bentinck early in the spring, whose object was to annihilate the French influence over the Genoese. With the aid of commodore Rowley he reduced the city of Genoa, and left it at the disposal of those powers which were proceeding to a general settlement of the affairs of Europe.

The Austrian general Bellegarde, acting in concert with Murat, had compelled the vicaroy Eugene Beauharnois to retire upon the Adige; but on receiving intelligence of the recent proceedings in France, a convention was concluded, by which the French troops were sent back to France, and the Italian troops transferred to

Austria, with the fortresses held by Beauharnois. In May the king of Sardinia re-entered Turin; and a proclamation at Rome announced the restoration of his holiness Pope Pius VII.

The ex-emperor Napoleon, after taking leave at Fontainebleau of the imperial guard, so long his

perienced in his journey; and at Avignon he was in some danger of personal violence. On the 22th of April he embarked on board an English frigate, and in a few days arrived at his chosen asylum in the isle of Elba, which thus rose into a temporary celebrity.

Louis XVIII., who had long lived in England in tranquil retirement, now roused himself from the indolence of a private life, and prepared himself to undertake the arduous task of governing a kingdom. He repaired to London, where, at the request of the prince regent, he made his public

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on the 1st of January 1792, with some slight additions of territory on the side of Belgium and Germany, and a considerable portion of Savoy, including Chambery and the Venaissin were added. The navigation of the Rhine, the House of Orange was assumed sovereign capital. States were united in a land was destined to Italy was once more delivered of despotism. Great requests to France, with the St Lucie, and the Mauritius were added to England; and the fortifications in India: She also engaged to co-operate with Great Britain in the eventual abolition of the slave trade.

Before the allies reached Paris, the impossibility of preserving Spain had prompted Napoleon to release Ferdinand from captivity, and to conclude a treaty with that prince for his restoration to actual royalty. In announcing this convention to the regency, the king expressed his gratitude for the unalterable attachment of his countrymen to his interests, and for the persevering courage and energy of his British allies; at the same time acknowledging his obligations to the emperor of France for the comforts which he had enjoyed during his exile, and the spontaneous offer of an advantageous pacification. The answer which he received was respectful

and polite ; but it was accompanied by a former decree of the Cortes, tending to annul every convention which the king might be induced to sign while he remained in captivity. In reply to another communication, the regents, evading the desired ratification of the late treaty, informed his majesty, that an ambassador had been deputed in his name to assist at the proposed congress of the chief European powers, the result of which would in all probability be a general peace ; and the council of state declared, that he ought not to be permitted to resume his authority, unless he would bind himself by oath to an observance of the constitution. The cortes confirmed this arrangement ; adding, that no Spaniard who had obtained any employment, received any mark of honour, or enjoyed a pension by the grant of Napoleon, or of Joseph, or who had retired with the French troops, should be allowed to accompany the king on his return.

Trusting to his authority and influence, Ferdinand disregarded these attempts to control him, and resolved to pursue his own inclinations, or follow the advice of his favourites. He quietly entered Spain by a different route from that which the regency had recommended, and proceeded to Valencia, where he issued two decrees, intimating an intention of sacrificing the interests of the two parties which divided the nation, to the benefit of a third set of men, then beginning to take the form and consistence of a party. These advisers were the friends of the ancient



system, the votaries of superstition and prejudice; who had temporized during the progress of the obtruded settlement at Bayonne, and opposed the constitution adjusted at Cadiz. Influenced by these unenlightened counsellors, the king stigmatized the existing cortes as illegally framed and composed; and having condemned the new constitution, dissolved the assembly, with a promise of convoking a regular national council.

By another decree Ferdinand restrained the liberty of the press, declaring that the censors should be such individuals as were not attached to the cortes, and had not been in the service of Joseph Buonaparte. Forgetting or neglecting that protest against despotism, which was included in the former of these decrees, he ordered the commandant of Madrid to apprehend two of the regents, several members of the cortes, and some editors of periodical journals, without stating their particular criminality or delinquency; and many other arbitrary arrests and imprisonments speedily followed. Intent on the restoration of monasteries, he ordained the restitution of the estates belonging to these foundations, without making compensation for the purchase or for the subsequent improvements of the property. He concurred with the late assembly in withholding the confiscated or sequestered lands and goods of supposed traitors, and thus enforced a decree which he ought rather to have annulled. The restoration of the pope's authority was almost as agreeable to Ferdinand as the permission of his own return

to power. That favour was readily granted by the statesmen who governed France during the *interregnum*; and the pope, like an incorrigible bigot, exhibited the same superstitious zeal which marked the character of the Spanish monarch, instead of displaying a just regard for incorrupt religion and enlightened government.

The crown-prince of Sweden (Bernadotte) being less irregularly elevated to the prospect of a throne than most of the new raised monarchs were, was permitted to enjoy his dignity; and that offer by which he had been allured into the confederacy was faithfully performed. It was policy, not justice, that dictated the promise of procuring Norway for the Swedes; but as the allied powers had deliberately involved themselves in the obligations of such a transfer, strict faith, in this instance, was allowed to triumph over natural equity, and the legitimate rules of conduct. Even the British cabinet sacrificed its ostensible maxims to political convenience, and obstinately urged the completion of the anomalous engagement, without regard to the wishes or remonstrances of the defenceless people, who were to be transferred like cattle from one master to another. The cession, on the part of the king of Denmark, was extorted by imperious circumstances, and by the exigency of the crisis; but even if it had been altogether voluntary, it gave no right of seizure to another prince or nation. He might justly resign the authority which he had exercised over Norway; but the people

should have been left at full liberty to choose a new government, uninfluenced by foreign dictation, unawed by a hostile confederacy.

The feelings of ancient animosity rendered the Norwegians particularly unwilling to submit to a nation which seemed to bear an hereditary hatred to the Danes; and in the hope of maintaining their independence, they treated with contempt the promises of the king of Sweden, who held out the prospect of a free constitution, and of the most friendly and cordial protection. All subjection to a foreign power was disclaimed by their patriotic leaders; and Christian Frederick, hereditary prince of Denmark, was invited to govern their kingdom. He readily accepted the offer of political power; and presenting himself at Christiana, began to provide for the defence of the country. In concert with some of the most intelligent natives, he prepared a constitution resembling that of England; but this compliment to Great Britain did not secure the friendship of her court, which, in answer to an application from the new government, sternly ordered a blockade of the Norwegian ports. An assembly of national representatives adopted the new constitution, and assigned to CHRISTIAN the royal title. As this was deemed a declaration of war against the allies, the envoys of the four great powers repaired to Christiana on the 30th of June, and announcing themselves as heralds rather than mediators, they peremptorily insisted on the full submission of the people of Norway, and their

pretended king, to the treaty which had been adjusted for their particular benefit, and for general convenience.

The Norwegians were now fully convinced of the inutility of resistance, and the Danish prince requested a forbearance of hostilities, in order that the proposals of the confederate powers might be submitted to the free discussion of the diet. But the terms of the armistice were disapproved, because the envoys demanded the admission of Swedish troops into the principal fortresses, and would only promise a partial suspension of the blockade. The prince of Sweden, having made preparations for subduing the proud spirit of the Norwegians, exercised his argumentative and persuasive powers in an address to the unyielding community; but his reasoning was not so forcible as his sword. He and the king entered the country with a numerous army; and although the insulted people repelled the enemy in some actions, the invaders quickly accomplished their object. The Danish prince submitted to their dictates, and advised the Norwegians to accept the offers of the Swedish court. A commotion arose in the capital, but it soon subsided; and the people acquiesced in the decision of the diet, which, in consideration of the acceptance of its constitution, with such alterations only as appeared to be necessary for the complete union of the two countries, on the 4th of November acknowledged the sovereignty of the king of Sweden.

The parliament of Great Britain, which, pursuant to their adjournment, assembled on the 1st of March 1814, again adjourned to the 21st of that month; but the business of the session possessed comparatively little interest, and may therefore be quickly dispatched. The supplies of the year, as stated by the chancellor of the exchequer, rose to L.75,600,000! This enormous sum was supplied by the usual taxes, ordinary and extraordinary, aided by loans stated at L.40,500,000, and a vote of credit for L.3,000,000. On the 28th of June the celebrated commander lord Wellington took his seat for the first time in the house of peers; when his various patents of honour, as baron, viscount, earl, marquis, and duke, were successively recited, and the thanks of the house were addressed to him by the lord-chancellor. In support of his new dignity, L.300,000 were voted for the purchase of a suitable mansion and domain. The generals Beresford, Hill, Graham, Cotton, and Hope, were also raised to the rank of peers; the two former by their family names, the three latter by the appellations of lords Lynedoch, Combermere, and Niddry.

A debate not devoid of interest occurred in the commons in consequence of a motion on the 22d of April by lord Morpeth. This nobleman, after a high and merited compliment to the speaker for the general discharge of his duty, read a passage from his address to the prince regent on presenting the bills at the close of the

last session, in which he had touched in very unusual language on the rejection of the catholic bill, characterizing it as "destructive of the laws by which the throne, the parliament, and the government of the country were made fundamentally protestant." This was conceived by the supporters of the measure, who constituted nearly half the house of commons, as taking upon him to pronounce, in the form of a censure upon their conduct, a definitive judgment upon the case, not pertaining to the speaker's office, and without the shadow of authority from the house.

Lord Morpeth then moved, "that it is contrary to parliamentary usage, and to the spirit of parliamentary proceeding, for the speaker, unless by special direction from the house, to inform his Majesty, either at the bar of the house of lords, or elsewhere, of any proposal made to the house by any of its members, either in the way of bill or motion." This was a proposition very difficult to combat. Some obsolete precedents were nevertheless resuscitated, and brought forward as authorities; and, after an animated debate relative to the discretionary power vested in the speaker, the motion was negatived by 274 to 106 votes.

The unhappy misunderstanding which had so long existed between the prince regent and his royal consort was again forced into public notice, in consequence of a declaration from the prince to the queen, to whom the princess had announced her intention of appearing at the next court day,

“that it was his fixed and unalterable determination not to meet the princess of Wales upon any occasion, either public or private.” The correspondence in writing to which this gave rise, the princess was advised to communicate to the speaker of the house of commons; and motions were made to take the same into consideration. But the house were unanimously of opinion, that no advantage could arise from such interference. In the contemplation, however, of a permanent separation, a vote passed for settling a revenue of L. 50,000 upon the princess. But some reflections having been thrown out, implying a censure on this liberality, she refused to accept of more than L. 35,000. This amendment was readily adopted; and influenced by the same counsels, though the nation at large entered most zealously into her interests, the princess, towards the end of the summer, bidding a long adieu to England, and a last farewell to her daughter, commenced a series of eccentric wanderings over Europe, Africa, and Asia. On the 30th July the parliament was prorogued.

The war between Great Britain and the United States of America was in this year carried on with an increase of vigour and force, which indicated a serious intention of bringing it to a speedy termination; in fact, that intention was first displayed by measures towards a pacific negotiation. On the 7th of January the president communicated to congress copies of letters which had passed between lord Castlereagh and Mr Munroe,

in which the former proposed the appointment of plenipotentiaries to treat on terms of peace, either at London or Gottenburg; which proposal was accepted by the president, who made choice of Gottenburg as the place. Such a step was rendered the more expedient to the American government, by the open opposition to the war manifested in the northern States, of which a specimen was given in a very forcible speech delivered by governor Strong before the legislature of Massachusetts. That the discontents occasioned by the restrictions on commerce, and their effects on the revenue of America, had made a serious impression, appeared from an act passed by the congress, in consequence of a message from the president, for the repeal of the embargo and non-importation acts. The expectations of a consequent revival of trade were, however, in a great measure frustrated, by the extension of the British blockade along the whole coast of the United States, announced in April by admiral Cochrane.

Early in the month of February the American general Wilkinson abandoned his position on the frontier of Lower Canada, and moved his headquarters to Burlington and Plattsburg, after partially destroying block-houses and barracks erected at a great expense, the destruction of which, with a quantity of stores, was completed by a pursuing British detachment. Wilkinson afterwards made an attack on a British post commanded by major Hancock, but was repulsed with considerable loss.



The fort of Oswego, situate on Lake Ontario, was reduced by sir James Yeo and general Drummond early in May; an achievement which was chiefly serviceable as it retarded the equipment of the enemy's armament on that lake. The English commodore long blockaded Sackett's-harbour, in the vain hope of co-operation from the commander-in-chief, general Prevost; but on the return of Chauncey, his able opponent, with a superior force, he reluctantly retired to Kingston. On this the Americans became the assailants: a formidable force under general Brown crossed the Niagara river, and compelled the garrison of Fort Erie to surrender prisoners of war. He then attacked the British lines at Chippawa; and after a warm action, in which the American troops appeared to have improved much in courage and discipline, the British commander, general Riall, whose strength was greatly inferior, retreated upon Fort George. The latter officer, however, being joined by general Drummond on the 25th of July, the Americans were in their turn defeated, and compelled to take refuge under the cannon of Fort Erie.

Large reinforcements arriving from Europe about midsummer, Sir George Prevost, after much consideration, determined upon an expedition to Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. At the head of 12,000 excellent troops the commander-in-chief ventured to enter the American territory; and, cautiously traversing the banks of the lake without seeing the face of an enemy, he arrived at his

destination early in September. The defences of Plattsburg were no better than slight field-works, still unfinished, and the garrison consisted of about 4000 men, chiefly raw militia; but he was in vain urged to an immediate assault, alleging the necessity of naval co-operation. Captain Downie, who commanded the flotilla on the lake, reached Plattsburg on the 11th of September, and immediately commenced the attack, in full confidence that the land-works would be assailed at the same time; but his signals were not answered. That brave officer fell early in the action; but the squadron maintained the fight, till, completely overpowered by the naval force of the enemy, combined with the incessant fire from the works, the ships were either destroyed or compelled to strike.

The commander-in-chief at length commenced his reluctant and long protracted attack; but almost immediately withdrew his troops, and, amidst the loud reproaches of the soldiery, ordered a general retreat, leaving behind him a vast quantity of stores; but his whole loss in killed and wounded did not exceed 200 men. This disaster closed the campaign, if such it could be called, in Lower Canada; and by the exertions of general Drummond, wholly unaided by the commander-in-chief, the Americans were finally compelled to evacuate Fort Erie, and the whole of the Niagara shore in Upper Canada. Sir James Yeo did not hesitate to prefer a direct accusation against sir George Prevost for neglect of duty

and misconduct. That commander was consequently recalled, but did not live to await the issue of an inquiry into his behaviour.

The military operations on the coasts of the southern American states had hitherto been rather of a harassing and predatory kind, than directed to any important purpose; but it was now resolved to strike a blow in this quarter, which might exert an influence on the fate of the war. A large naval force under the command of vice-admiral sir Alexander Cochrane, having on board a strong body of troops commanded by major-general Robert Ross, was in the Chesapeak the beginning of August, waiting for the arrival of rear-admiral Malcolm with an expedition from Bermuda. On their junction the admiral was informed by rear-admiral Cockburn, that the American commodore Barney, with the Baltimore flotilla, had taken shelter at the head of the Patuxent. Of this circumstance they determined to take advantage for ascending the river, with the declared purpose of an attack upon Barney; while their real object was the city of Washington, the American capital, not far distant from a port on the Patuxent.

On the 19th and 20th of August, the army being landed at that place, general Ross began his march to Washington, the force of the Americans for its protection having been ascertained to be such as would justify an attempt to take it by a *coup de main*. Arriving on the 24th within five miles of the capital, he found the Americans,

to the number of 8000 or 9000, strongly posted to dispute his advance. An attack on them was immediately directed; and it was made with so much impetuosity, that they were in a short time wholly dispersed, and the British army reached Washington in the evening of the same day. No time was lost in commencing the work of destruction, which was the main purpose of the expedition. The public buildings committed to the flames were, the capitol, including the senate-house and house of representatives, the president's palace, the arsenal, the dock-yard, treasury, war office, rope-walk, and the great bridge across the Potomac. A frigate ready to be launched, and a sloop of war, were consumed in the dock-yard. Private property was respected, and strict discipline was observed among the troops. On the following night a retreat was commenced, and the army having met with no molestation on its return, was on the 30th re embarked.

Connected with this enterprise was the destruction of Fort Washington on the Potomac, below the city. This was effected on the 27th by Captain Gordon of the Seahorse, accompanied by other vessels; and by its fall the town of Alexandria, on the same river, was left without protection. Captain Gordon then advanced to Alexandria, and placed his ships so as to force compliance with any terms he chose to propose. The conditions at length agreed on were, that the town should be spared with the exception of its public works, and the inhabitants unmolested

on giving up all the naval and ordnance stores, public and private, all the shipping and their furniture, and merchandise of every description. Twenty-one of the vessels were fitted for sea, and loaded on the 21st, when Captain Gordon being informed that preparations were making to oppose his return, quitted Alexandria without waiting to destroy the stores which he could not carry away, and brought back all his squadron and prizes in safety to the Chesapeake.

The American president on this issued a proclamation, in which he spoke of the devastation at Washington as a measure of extreme and barbarous severity; and mentioned that the British naval commander on the station had avowed his purpose of destroying and laying waste such towns and districts on the coast as should be found assailable, under the pretext of retaliation for the ravages committed in Upper Canada, though none such occurred but what had been shewn to be unauthorized. He then called upon all officers to be alert and vigilant in providing the means of defence.

Admiral Cochrane and general Ross next concerted the plan of an attempt against the town of Baltimore, one of the most considerable ports in the United States. On the 12th of September the troops were landed about eighteen miles from the town, whence they advanced along a peninsula between two rivers. As the vanguard was engaged with the enemy's riflemen covered by woods, general Ross received a mortal wound in

the breast. He instantly sent for colonel Brooke, the second in command, to whom he gave some instructions: Recommending his young children to the protection of his country, and exclaiming "My dear wife!" he expired. Few men ever fell in battle more generally beloved in their private character, or admired in their professional capacity.

The van now pressed on, driving the enemy's light troops before them, till they arrived within five miles of Baltimore. A corps of 6000 men was there descried, posted behind a palisade across the road. They were immediately attacked and dispersed with great loss, and the army halted for the night. On the next day they advanced, and took a position a mile and a half from Baltimore. The hills surrounding the town were found occupied by a chain of palisaded redoubts and other works, defended, it was said, by 15,000 men. An attack was, however, planned by the British commander, when a message arrived from the admiral, acquainting him that the harbour was closed in such a manner by sunken vessels defended by batteries, that it was impossible to bring up his ships to co-operate as had been intended. It was therefore the opinion of both commanders, that the chance of success in further operations was not adequate to the hazard; and after the army in retreating had halted some time, to give the Americans an opportunity of following, which they declined doing, it was again



tion of which it was agreed that commissioners should reciprocally be appointed. Each nation engaged to put an end to all hostilities that might be subsisting between them and the Indian tribes, and to restore to them all the possessions and privileges which belonged to them previous to such hostilities. Both parties likewise covenanted to continue their efforts for the abolition of the slave trade. No notice whatever was taken of the circumstances which had occasioned the war.

This year was rendered memorable by a concourse of illustrious visitors to the English capital, in number and rank surpassing any modern example. In the beginning of June the emperor of Russia, with his sister the duchess of Oldenburg, and the king of Prussia and his two sons, attended by various persons of high distinction, visited England. Prince Metternich, prince Czernicheff; generals Blucher, Barclay de Tolly, Platoff the hetman of the cossacks, &c. were also among the number. The emperor Alexander acquired great popularity by his affability and condescension, as well as by the generosity and forbearance of his late conduct. The king of Prussia appeared to labour under deep dejection. Notwithstanding his recent success, he had lost all estimation and independent consequence in Europe. He also deeply felt the untimely death of the queen, which had recently occurred—a most amiable, beautiful, and accomplished princess, who had bitterly lamented the ill-advised



and calamitous war of 1806 against France.— After a residence of some weeks, in the course of which the sovereigns were magnificently entertained by the city of London, these illustrious guests returned to the continent, much gratified with their visit.

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## CHAPTER XI.

1815—1816.

THE return of peace more respectable part there were circumstances could not but prove high-spirited nation : and justified an acquie

LOUIS XVIII. was the general concurrence had given them a coalition to satisfy the friable reform. But the political differences which indicated the ex and suspicion among nity. The majority wearied with the ob desperation of their la wisdom, the generosity IV. to compose the ja

and to restore the calm and sunshine of the political atmosphere after a storm so tremendous and of such duration. Unhappily, however, the character of Louis XVIII. was of a totally opposite description: he was feeble, indolent, and indecisive. Destitute of energy to judge and act for himself, he was greatly influenced in all his measures by his brother the count d'Artois, who, without possessing any superiority of understanding, and far inferior in the virtues of the heart, is said to have obtained an ascendancy over him by the violence of his temper. The measures of the court, in fact, were such as to extort an observation, which soon became current, that "the Bourbons, during their twenty years' exile, had learnt nothing, and forgot nothing."—" *Ils n'ont rien appris, ils n'ont rien oublié.*"

In the legislative assemblies some trying questions had been agitated, particularly those relating to emigrant property, and the censorship of the press, which, though carried by decisive majorities in favour of the court, were determined upon other principles in the private societies of Paris and the provinces. Besides, the idea of submitting to the rule of a dynasty restored by foreign arms, must naturally prove perpetually irritating to a people of keen feeling, and who had been long accustomed to consider themselves as holding the first place in the system of Europe: nor was this sentiment counteracted by that spirit of loyal attachment to the race of their monarchs, which, though once so general in France, must

now have been nearly obliterated. But it was in the military class that sentiments existed the most hostile to the Bourbon government. The French soldiery, from the general to the private, with scarcely an exception, retained a kind of chivalrous veneration for the chief who had so often led them to glory and victory; and under whose banners, notwithstanding recent disasters, they fondly regarded themselves as still destined to retrieve their own honour and that of their country.

Although the ex-emperor had not carried on a direct correspondence in France from his retreat in Elba, he was well informed of the agitated state of the public feeling. He was not ignorant, that among the military the health of their idol was commonly drunk under the familiar appellation of *Corporal Violet*; in allusion to the approaching spring, when they cherished some obscure notion that he would emerge from his seclusion. In the mean time, the monarch, the princes, and the courtiers, little suspected "that they reposed upon a sleeping lion." Napoleon, indeed, appeared not to repine at the loss of his grandeur. With his visitors, and especially the English, he conversed in that style of apparent frankness which was familiar to him, and which gave the impression that he was cured of all ambitious projects: in short, he seemed to be absorbed in all the petty concerns of his small dominion. A kind of naval supervision of the island was exercised by English and French armed

cruisers, but merely as observers, for no authority was claimed for controlling the motions of the monarch of Elba.

Such was the actual state of things, when, taking advantage of the absence of Sir Neil Campbell, the British supervisor, on the 26th of February, this daring adventurer, A. D. 1815. veiled by the shades of evening, sailed from Porto Ferrajo, on board a vessel called the Inconstant, accompanied by several smaller ones, having on board

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dard of Napoleon, who, thus reinforced, entered Grenoble in triumph. On advancing to Lyons he was joined by the troops charged to defend

capital and occupying the throne; but, independent of the demonstrations he had experienced

the principal commanders. The moment the intelligence of his landing was received at Paris, a proclamation was issued by the king for the convocation of the two chambers, which had been adjourned; and another, declaring the invader a traitor and a rebel, and denouncing capital punishment against him and his adherents. A large body of troops were also assembled at Melun, for the immediate protection of Paris; and another body was posted at Montargis, on the road to Fontainebleau, so that the invader might be placed between two fires; and this disposition would doubtless have been effectual, had the fidelity of these troops corresponded with their strength.

Marshal Ney, one of the most distinguished military characters in France, had made a voluntary tender of his services to Louis XVIII. and had been appointed to the command of 12,000 or 15,000 men posted at Lons le Saunier. But no sooner had his late master advanced to Auxerre, than he was joined by the marshal with his whole division, who had hoisted the tri-coloured flag; and Ney sealed his defection by issuing a proclamation to his troops, in which he informed them, that the cause of the Bourbons was for ever lost; and that the lawful dynasty which the French had adopted was about to reascend the throne. As great reliance had been placed on the fidelity of Ney, the step he had now taken was decisive. All confidence in the army being now at an end, the king, with the princes of the blood, quitted Paris. On the 19th March, Napoleon re-entered



ditary sovereignty,—the breach of promise to provide a suitable establishment for Eugene Beauharnois, the adopted son of Napoleon,—the withholding of the rewards and compensations stipulated in behalf of the army,—the seizure of property belonging to the emperor's family,—the non-payment of the annuities due from the French government conformably to the treaty, and the total disregard of all applications for that purpose;—in fine, the resolution fixed upon by the congress, at the instigation of the Bourbons, to rob him of the isle of Elba; and had not Providence prevented, Europe would have seen an attempt made on the person and liberty of Napoleon, left hereafter to the mercy of his enemies, and transported far from his friends and followers, either to St Lucie or St Helena, which had been pointed out as his prison.

When the allied powers had received certain information of Napoleon's descent in France, they issued a manifesto, dated the 13th of March, in which they declared, "that Napoleon Buonaparte, by violating the convention which had established him at Elba, had placed himself out of the pale of civil and social relations; and, as an enemy and disturber of the tranquillity of the world, had rendered himself liable to public vengeance." They therefore announced, without reserve, their determination of uniting their efforts to secure Europe against any attempt which might threaten to replunge it into revolutionary disorders and miseries.



Nor was this an idle menace. The chivalrous ardour of the emperor of Russia prompted him to send immediate instructions to his capital for the march of troops, and for new enlistments. The emperor of Austria and king of Prussia issued their peremptory commands for the same object; and no one could doubt the corresponding zeal of Great Britain. The declaration was soon confirmed by a treaty, dated March 25th, which bound each of the four powers to bring 150,000 men into the field, and not desist from their exertions until they should have rendered Napoleon wholly incapable of disturbing the tranquillity of Europe. England was permitted to substitute pecuniary payment for a part of the stipulated force; and she also gratified the three continental powers with a subsidy of L.5,000,000 sterling, without which they declared they could not execute their engagements. Louis XVIII. was invited to accede to this alliance; and it was understood to be the wish of all the contracting parties, that he should be restored to the throne; but the head of the English government declared, in a separate article, that he did not consider himself as *bound* to reinstate that monarch, or "to prosecute the war with a view of imposing upon France any particular government."

The whole of France now seemed to unite in favour of the emperor; and the efforts of the royalists to excite a reaction in the provinces proved abortive. The duke of Bourbon failed even in La Vendee; and the duke and duchess

of Angouleme were equally unsuccessful in the south. At Bourdeaux, so conspicuous last year for its loyalty, the duchess harangued the officers in person ; but perceiving that no impression could be made, she indignantly exclaimed, " I release you from your oaths ;" and took her departure in an English frigate. The duke, at the head of a small army, obtained a momentary advantage near Valence ; but finding himself wholly unsupported, and in imminent danger, he signed a convention with general Grouchy, who commanded in that quarter, by which he agreed to dismiss his army, on condition of indemnity to the officers and soldiers ; and that he himself should be escorted to the port of Cette, there to embark for Spain. The king, who had withdrawn first to Lisle, and then to Ghent, confined his operations to edicts and ordinances ; and the only military force he possessed was a part of the household troops, under the command of the duke of Berri.

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posted near Avesnes in Flanders, and preparations for defence against invasion had been made at Laon and the castle of Guise.

On the 12th of June Napoleon quitted Paris, and proceeded to Laon. In strict conformity with his usual plan of pushing forward at once to the most important point, he resolved on attacking the British and Prussian armies, whilst the Russians and Austrians were still too remote to afford succour, hoping by his success to restore to the dominion of France the Belgic provinces, in which an attachment to that country was supposed to have taken deep root. At the head of a numerous and well-appointed army, composed of the flower of the French regulars, animated with enthusiastic confidence in their leader, at daylight of the 15th he made an attack on the Prussian posts on the Sambre. Charleroi being carried, general Ziethen retired upon Fleurus, where he was attacked, and sustained considerable loss. Blucher concentrated the rest of the Prussian army at Sombref; and the French, continuing their advance on the road to Brussels, drove back a brigade of the Belgian army, under the prince of Weimar, to the position of a farm-house named Quatre Bras.

Through some apparent defect of intelligence, the duke of Wellington was not informed of these events till the evening, when he immediately ordered such of his troops as were in readiness to march to the left and support the Prussians. On the 16th, Blucher, who was posted on the heights

between Brie and Sombref, awaited the attack of the French, although the whole of his army had not joined. The battle raged with great fury from three in the afternoon till late in the evening, when the Prussians, pressed by superior numbers, and receiving no succour, were forced to retire, leaving behind them 16 pieces of cannon, and a great number of killed and wounded. They however formed again at a short distance, and were not pursued. Their veteran commander made extraordinary exertions, and was brought into imminent personal danger.

Lord Wellington, in the mean time, had directed his whole army to advance upon Quatre Bras, where the fifth division, under general Riviere, arrived early in the afternoon of the 16th, followed by the corps under the duke of Brunswick and the contingent of Hanover. It was the wish of the duke of Wellington for the assistance of the duke of Brunswick; but he was opposed by a large body of cavalry and powerful artillery, while his own army had not yet joined. The repeated charges were steadily repulsed, but a great loss was incurred, including that of the duke of Brunswick.

Blucher found himself so much weakened by the day's action, that he fell back during the night to Wavre; and this caused the duke of Wellington to retire, on the morning of the 17th, upon Gemappe, and from thence to Waterloo, in order to maintain the communication. The chain

of heights occupied by the British army, two miles in front of the village of Waterloo, traversed the high roads leading from Charleroi and Nivelles to Brussels, and uniting at the hamlet of St Jean in the rear of the British position. The right wing extended to a ravine, between which and the centre lay the mansion and garden of Hougoumont, which were occupied in force. The left of the centre was covered by the farm of La Haye Sainte, beyond which the position opened to that of the Prussians at Wavre. The heights of Waterloo are confronted by another chain to the south, the space between being scarcely half-a-mile in breadth. The British army and their Belgic allies passed the night of the 17th under arms, exposed during part of the time to a violent tempest.

At day-break on the 18th of June Napoleon arrived with his advanced guard at the post of La Belle Alliance, in the rear of the adverse heights, along which the French divisions successively ranged. The battle commenced about ten, by a fierce assault on Hougoumont, and a heavy cannonade. Repeated attacks, both of cavalry and infantry, were then made on different points of the line for several hours with astonishing perseverance, and repelled with equal firmness. Heavy bodies of cuirassiers and lancers also advanced, supported by close columns of infantry. They were received by the battalions of the allies formed into hollow squares, those in the rear covering the intervals of those in front: the

artillery also, being skilfully planted and served throughout the line, kept up a tremendous fire. The mutual slaughter was great, but the enemy could make no serious impression. Two thousand lives were lost in the assault on Hougoumont alone; and this attempt being at length relinquished, a combined attack of cavalry and infantry was made on the left of the allies; and the post of La Haye Sainte, long and resolutely defended by the Hanoverian troops, was finally carried by storm at the point of the bayonet. The event now appeared very doubtful, for the arrival of the Prussians had long been looked for in vain.

Animated by a temporary success, the French renewed their efforts to break the British centre, and turn the duke of Wellington's left, so as to exclude the expected support from the Prussians, and a terrible conflict ensued. That division which sir Thomas Picton commanded, instead of waiting for an attack which was threatened by a strong column, formed itself into a compact square, and so intimidated the French by its firmness of countenance, being ready to make the most forcible use of the bayonet, that after firing a volley, which did little execution except that of killing the gallant leader of the corps, they retired precipitately. The enemy, returning to the charge, drove back the regiments of Highlanders; but these, being seasonably supported, readvanced, and repelled their opponents. In this part of the field the Scots Greys not only slew or captured

the greater part of a body of infantry, but, with the aid of a corps of dragoons, routed a column of cavalry at whose head were the cuirassiers. This was the most severe and murderous cavalry engagement that modern times have exhibited. In this encounter fell sir William Ponsonby, and other gallant officers. While the battle still raged with doubtful and varying success, the distant sound of cannon was heard, and soon the advanced brigades of the Prussians, under general Bulow, were seen to emerge from the woods on the left. These were immediately opposed by the French reserve under count Lobau. Hougomont and La Haye Sainte were again the objects of contest; while the British, once more assailed along the whole extent of the line, were cheered by the heroism of the commander-in-chief, who exposed his person to every danger. "What will they say in England," said he, "if we are defeated?"

Napoleon had at the first mistaken the Prussian brigades for the troops of Grouchy; but, to his great astonishment, he at length perceived the main body of the Prussian army rapidly advancing. It was yet in his power to have effected a retreat in good order; instead of which he determined to hazard a final and desperate attack, which might decide the fate of the day before any effectual succour could be given. Accordingly, about seven in the evening, he brought forward the imperial guards, who were sustained by the best regiments of horse and foot, the flower



of the army: these advanced amid shouts of *Vive l'Empereur!* and flourishes of martial music. Now the moment had arrived when Napoleon, at the head of these devoted troops, should have conquered or died; but he satisfied himself with placing them under the conduct of marshal Ney. From the rapidity and eagerness of their march, the columns were thrown into some disorder. The duke of Wellington did not suffer this to pass unobserved, but seized the moment, and advanced his whole line of infantry, supported by cavalry and artillery. The French fell back amazed; and scarcely waiting the exchange of bayonets, these famous veterans were broke and dispersed almost without an effort, marshal Ney in vain attempting to rally the fugitives. The French were presently driven from every point of their position on the heights, and fled in the utmost confusion, leaving on the field about 150 pieces of cannon, with their ammunition. The Prussians had now come up in full force, and to them was committed the further pursuit of the vanquished troops, the British being quite exhausted with the fatigues of the day. The task was well performed by the former; and nothing could be more complete than the discomfiture of the routed army, of which the remains, consisting of about 40,000 men, partly without arms, and carrying with them no more than 27 pieces out of their whole park of artillery, made their retreat through Charleroi.

Such, in its leading features, was the battle of Waterloo, which will always be memorable in English history, as affording one of the noblest proofs upon record of British valour, and of the talents of a great national commander, as well as being in its effects decisive of a most momentous contest, in which the peace of all Europe was at stake. Such a victory was unavoidably purchased at a high price; and no action of the long war returned so bloody a list of British officers. Two generals and four colonels fell on the field; and nine generals and five colonels were among the wounded: of inferior officers, in both, there was a full proportion. The total of killed and wounded exceeded 13,000, exclusive of the Prussians. The loss of the French must have been tremendous, though it could not be correctly calculated. It is supposed that they left at least 20,000 men dead on the field. The prisoners did not exceed 7000, among whom were count Lobau, and general Cambrönne.

The consternation of Napoleon on seeing the columns of the imperial guard recoil, is said to have been extreme. All his ambitious views, all his prospects of continued power, seemed to vanish into air. Even his hopes of personal safety were almost annihilated. When he saw the rout become too apparent to be mistaken, he exclaimed to the persons near him, "It is all over; we must now look to our own safety." After some hours of silent and melancholy flight through Charleroi, he reached Philippeville; and,

leaving orders for reassembling the army at Avesnes, he having with difficulty eluded the eager grasp of his exasperated pursuers at Gemappe, as if in despair of his fortune took the road to Paris, where he arrived in deep dejection on the second evening after the battle. The inhabitants were then unacquainted with the particulars of the disastrous conflict. Some unfavourable reports had indeed succeeded the intelligence of the victory at Ligny; but it was not generally believed that any great misfortune had occurred until the emperor's return was known. It was, however, immediately suspected that he had been completely vanquished; and the truth was disclosed in its full extent. His conduct in the generalship of the army on the 18th incurred some severe animadversion: in particular, marshal Ney, in a letter addressed to Fouché, asked, "By what fatality did the emperor, instead of leading all his forces against the duke of Wellington, who would have been attacked unawares, and could not have resisted, consider this attack as secondary? Had he left a corps of observation to watch the Prussians, and marched with the most powerful masses to support me, the English army had undoubtedly been destroyed between Quatre Bras and Gemappe; but fate ordered it otherwise."

Soon after his arrival at Paris, Napoleon assembled his council, when it was suggested by some of his adherents, that, under existing circumstances, the only remedy that suggested it-

self was the assumption of dictatorial authority, and the suspension of the legislature, in which he was supported by his brother Lucien. But the two chambers hastily assembling, declared their sittings permanent, and denounced all attempts to dissolve them as treasonable : the ministers of state were also invited to assist at their deliberations. The chamber of peers passed a similar resolution of permanence. After a short interval of vacillation, produced by the last expiring struggles of ambition, Napoleon perceived that he was no longer the object of public confidence ; and accordingly, on the 22d of June, he issued a declaration, in which, professing " to offer himself a sacrifice to the hatred of the enemies of France, he affirmed that his political life was terminated, and that he resigned in favour of his son Napoleon II."

This abdication was accepted by the chambers, but the nomination of his son for a successor was passed over unnoticed. The minister of police, Fouché, having laid this declaration before the legislative body, that assembly voted an address of thanks for the sacrifice he had made, and a provisional government was then appointed by the two chambers, consisting of Carnot, Fouché, Caulincourt, Grenier, and Quinette ; and a commission nominated to repair to the allied armies with proposals for peace. The emperor, as the last act of his public life, issued a farewell address to the army, and, retiring to Malmaison, occupied himself in preparing for a voyage to

North America, which he had fixed on as his future asylum; and on the 29th of June he set out for Rochefort, where a small squadron awaited his orders.

After the victory of Waterloo, the allies came to the determination of treating with the French, only under the walls of Paris; and on the 21st the duke of Wellington and prince Blucher entered the French territory. From Malplaquet lord Wellington addressed a proclamation to the people of France, announcing that he had entered not as an enemy, except of the  
of the human race, with whom  
neither peace nor truce; but to  
throw off the yoke by which they  
He also enforced through his  
march the strictest military discipline.

On the 23d lord Wellington sent a detachment against Cambray, which was taken by escalade without much loss; and Louis XVIII. soon after removed from Ghent to that city. The march of the allied army was now one continued triumph. Avesnes, Peronne, and other towns, either opened their gates, or were reduced after a slight resistance. They continued their march to the capital; and on the 28th the Prussian advanced guard was attacked at Villars Coteret; but on the coming up of the main body, the assailants were repulsed with loss. The duke of Wellington crossed the Oise on the 29th and 30th, at which time marshal Blucher passed the Seine at St Germain, their plan being to invest

Paris on two sides. The heights about the city were strongly fortified, and it was defended by 40,000 or 50,000 troops of the line and guards, beside the national guards, tirailleurs, and Parisian volunteers.

Blucher met with considerable opposition in establishing himself on the left of the Seine, but he ultimately succeeded; and Paris being now exposed on its most vulnerable side, with a communication opened between the two blockading armies, a request came for the cessation of hostilities, for the purpose of entering into a convention. This was concluded on the 3d of July, between prince Blucher and the duke of Wellington on the one part, and Davoust (prince of Eckmuhl) on the other; the convention referring merely to military points, without touching any that were political. By its stipulation, the French army was on the following day to commence its march for the Loire, and was completely to evacuate Paris in three days; all the fortified posts around the city, and finally its barriers, were to be given up; the duty of Paris was to be performed by the national guards and the municipal gendarmerie; public property was to be respected, with the exception of what related to war; private persons and property were also to be respected, and all individuals continuing in the capital were to enjoy their rights and liberties, "without being called to account, either for the situations they may have held, or as to their conduct or political opinions." This last clause is worthy of observation,

because it was afterwards adduced on the trial of an eminent state criminal as a promise of a general amnesty.

At Paris, the chambers continued their sittings after the signing of the convention, but this show of authority was soon terminated. In 1814 Louis XVIII. had been placed on the throne in conformity to the will of the nation : he was now reinstated solely by a foreign force. The chambers were closed by order of the military ; and on the 8th of July that monarch once more made his entry into the capital under the most gloomy and unpropitious omens. Its military positions were all occupied by the allied troops, and it was under their safeguard that the royal government was restored, and the white cockade resumed its honours.

On the 3d of July the ex-emperor arrived at Rochefort, attended by an escort of honour, and took up his residence at the house of the prefect, with the view of immediate embarkation. The port, however, was closely blockaded by English cruisers ; and after some ineffectual attempts to elude their vigilance, he determined at length to throw himself upon the generosity of the British nation, claiming its protection. On the 15th, having previously sent a flag of truce to the Bellerophon man of war, commanded by captain Maitland, he went off, with his suit and baggage, in a brig, which conveyed him to that ship, and he was put on board.

From the *Bellerophon* Napoleon addressed a letter to the prince regent of England, in the following terms: "Exposed to the factions which divide my country, and to the hostility of the greatest powers in Europe, I have closed my political career. I come, like Themistocles, to seek the hospitality of the British nation. I place myself under the protection of their laws, which I claim from your royal highness as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of my enemies." Of this letter, however, not the slightest notice was taken. He was not allowed to land on the British coast. His property was sequestrated, and no title beyond that of general was to be given him. In fine it was announced, that his future residence was unalterably determined to be the island of St Helena, there to be detained as a state prisoner, under the inspection of commissioners from the allied powers. Against this terrific sentence of banishment to a rock in the southern Atlantic, he entered an energetic protest, denying that he was a captive, having surrendered himself to the protection of the British laws, which he had never violated; and of the British government, to whose jurisdiction he was not amenable.

Napoleon was soon after transferred from the *Bellerophon* to the *Northumberland*, bearing the flag of admiral sir George Cockburn, with the few faithful friends who determined to share his fortunes; and that vessel, on the 8th of August, proceeded on her voyage for St Helena, where



in a few weeks she safely arrived. Such is the strange vicissitude of human affairs, and in so dark a cloud did the splendid career of Napoleon terminate! In his state of exile he had abundant leisure for calm reflection, but he expressed neither regret for his past errors, nor resignation to his present fate. On the contrary, his days were spent in quarrelling with sir Hudson Lowe, the governor of the island, and in venting his bitterest reproaches against him to all who were admitted into his presence. Setting his resentment at open defiance, his language was, "You have power over my body, but none over my soul. That soul is as proud, fierce, and determined at the present moment, as when it commanded Europe." And his whole deportment was governed by the same unseasonable haughtiness. Applications were frequently made to ascertain his wants and wishes, but to little purpose. To captain Hamilton, of the frigate *Havannah*, at an audience previous to the departure of that officer from St Helena, he said, "They wish to know what I desire: I demand my liberty, or my death. Report these words to your prince regent. I was not your prisoner. Savages would have had more respect for my situation. Your ministers have basely violated, in my person, the sacred rights of hospitality: They have for ever dishonoured England. I have been cruelly deceived, but Heaven will avenge my wrongs."

That the last scenes of his life, says a late writer, should have been imbittered by every species of vexation and chagrin, must therefore be rather the subject of regret than of wonder. After twice abdicating the imperial dignity, he still affected to maintain the state of an emperor: His remonstrances were invectives tending only to irritation. Weighed down by mental suffering, and the disorders incident to a tropical climate, he expired at St Helena on 5th May 1821.

Looking to the dark side of the portrait of Napoleon, says the same writer, his early conduct to Venice, his barbarities at Jaffa, his warfare against St Domingo, his treatment of Touissant, Wright, d'Enghein, &c. his treachery to Spain, his sacrifice of the Tyrolese, his insidious protestations to Poland, his boundless usurpations and inextinguishable thirst of empire; it may be asked, what can redeem the vices of his character? But if we reverse the picture, and compare him with his more immediate predecessors in the career of fame, such as Louis XIV., Peter the Great, or Frederick of Prussia, the moral and political conduct of Napoleon will appear to no disadvantage. The first effort of his government was to restore peace to the world—an effort answered only by contumely and insult. His subsequent attempts of 1805 and 1807 were equally ineffectual. Compelled, therefore, to press forward in the path of victory, he no longer sought for peace; and, intoxicated with success, he finally fell the victim of his own presumption.

In splendour of genius, in patronage of the arts and sciences, in national works of utility and magnificence, and in calling forth merit of every kind, he far excelled all the sovereigns of his time. And from the peculiar situation in which he stood, his political aggrandizement was closely connected with the civil and religious interests of humanity. France, Italy, and the Netherlands, felt and acknowledged the equity of his internal government. He was a beneficent legislator; and the code which he promulgated will transmit his name with honour to succeeding generations.

But it is time that we now return to the great theatre of European politics.

Louis XVIII. had resumed the crown under circumstances which rendered it truly a crown of thorns. Finding himself entirely in the hands of foreign troops as his guardians, and only the nominal sovereign of a country distracted by party, and in a state of perpetual irritation from a sense of fallen greatness and of present subjugation, it is no wonder that his measures were at first fluctuating, and that his councils underwent frequent change. To the historians of France must be left a narrative of political events highly interesting to the speculatist; all that remains for us, in this place, is to bring to a close the affairs of that country, so far as they were immediately influenced by the allied arms.

Some of the principal towns in France, which had held out under their military commanders, were at length brought to submit; and the

French army itself, that dangerous organ of power in any hand, was finally dissolved, to be replaced by a new one collected on national principles. The public discontent was, however, greatly aggravated by an act of resumption exercised by the allies; that of entirely stripping the museum of the Louvre of all those fruits of conquest which had rendered it the repository of the most famous works of art in Europe, and returning them to their original proprietors. It had been the pride and boast of Napoleon to collect those pieces of ancient and modern art, and to send them to the French capital as trophies of his victory. These were now reclaimed, and restored to Germany, to Flanders, and to Italy. Venice received back the famous Corinthian Horses; Florence, the Venus de Medicis; Rome, the Apollo Belvidere, and the *chef-d'œuvres* of Raffael and Michael Angelo. Thus the humiliations of France may be said to have commenced with the second *entrée* of Louis XVIII. into Paris.

After a long and anxious suspense, the congress held at Vienna made publicly known the conditions on which France was permitted to keep her station in the European community. This, however, was definitively settled at Paris, by a treaty signed November 20th, which stipulated that Louis should cede to the allies the important fortresses of Landau, Saar-Louis, Philippeville, and Marienburg, with the duchy of Bouillon. Versoix, and part of the territory of

Gex, were yielded to the Helvetic confederacy; the works of Huninguen were dismantled; and France engaged to erect no others within the distance of three leagues from Basle, thus leaving a free passage into the heart of France. Seventeen of the principal towns on the frontiers of French Flanders, Champagne, Lorrain, and Alsace, among which were Condé, Valenciennes, Cambray, &c. the bulwarks of her Flemish and Germanic frontier, were to be delivered up to the allies, to be held in trust for five years by an army of occupation, consisting of 150,000 men, to be maintained solely at the expense of France. An assessment was also levied upon the latter of SEVEN HUNDRED MILLIONS OF FRANCS, to be divided among the allies, and defrayed by modes and at periods specified in a separate convention. Conditions so degrading Marlborough and Eugene had never offered to impose after ten victorious campaigns. Such, however, was the mode adopted by the allies to maintain the imbecile monarch on his inglorious and improvident throne;—such the bitter cup of humiliation to be drained by that country, after so many triumphs over her neighbours, enjoyed with so little moderation.

Under the influence of terror inspired by recent events, Louis XVIII. seemed disposed, in this new state of things, to adopt a popular system of government. M. Talleyrand was appointed minister for foreign affairs, baron Louis of finance, Fouché of police, and St Cyr of war.

On the 27th of July Talleyrand addressed a letter to lord viscount Castlereagh, then at Paris, in reply to his urgent solicitations, announcing " that his most christian majesty had issued directions in order that, on the part of France, the traffic in slaves may cease, from the present time, every-where and for ever." A change of policy, however, soon took place ; and an ordonnance was issued, declaring that thirty-eight peers, who had accepted seats in the chamber summoned by Napoleon Buonaparte, had forfeited their dignity. Another ordonnance contained a long list of generals and officers who had taken part in what was called the hundred days' reign of Napoleon. These were ordered to be arrested and brought to trial before courts-martial. In a second list were inserted the names of very many persons in Paris, who were ordered to withdraw into the interior till their fate could be determined on.

The duke de Richelieu now superseded Talleyrand as first minister, Des Cazes was appointed to the department of the police, and Barbé-Marbois of justice. Labedoyere, the first officer of rank who had joined Napoleon after his return from Elba, was tried, condemned, and executed, under the royal ordonnance. After a short interval it was judged expedient to proceed with the same rigour against marshal Ney, who had fought the battles of his country with so much glory, and who, being a resident in Paris at the moment of the last capitulation, was supposed to



was accordingly executed as a soldier, on the 7th of December, meeting his fate with heroic firmness.

Marshal Soult, who had been placed by Napoleon at the head of the war department, was present in the battles of Ligny and Waterloo, and involved in the same danger with marshal Ney; but he made so noble a defence that it was found impossible to continue the proceedings against him. "The king," said he, "had retired from the kingdom. All France had submitted; and the government of the usurper was established in fact. Prussian, English, and Austrian battalions had already raised on our frontier the cry of hatred and vengeance. At the approach of this torrent, composed of numerous nations, amidst which there did not appear a single Frenchman, the only prospect which seemed to present itself was the ruin of France. My heart told me that a French marshal, as a citizen and a soldier, could not allow his sword to remain in its scabbard."

A different fate awaited Murat, a man distinguished for personal valour, and who had once held a pre-eminent rank among the marshals of France. Murat had resided in obscurity near Toulon, until the events which succeeded the battle of Waterloo rendered that retreat no longer safe; and after encountering many perils, he made his retreat in an open boat to Corsica. While there, he received proposals from the emperor Francis of an honourable asylum in Bohemia, Moravia, or Upper Austria; in which case



he might proceed to Trieste to rejoin his wife and family. This offer he rashly refused, and madly undertook, in imitation of Napoleon, an expedition for the recovery of the kingdom of Naples. Having collected about 400 followers, who consisted of Corsican mountaineers, he embarked his troops early in October, in five small vessels, intending to land them at Salerno. His flotilla, however, was dispersed by a storm; and when he landed at Pizzo, on the coast of Calabria, on the 8th of October, he could only muster about 80 officers. On attempting to raise the inhabitants he was attacked by an armed force, overpowered, and after a desperate resistance taken prisoner. On the 15th, pursuant to orders from Naples, he was tried by a court-martial, and found guilty of having attempted to excite rebellion and civil war. Sentence of death was pronounced upon him, and on the same day he was shot. He behaved on the occasion with his wonted courage; placed on his breast a picture of his wife, refused to have his eyes bandaged, and receiving six balls through his head, died without a groan. His military talents, in his own line of a cavalry commander, were confessedly great; and Napoleon probably incurred no slight injury by not availing himself of them in the affair of Waterloo. Under his government, Naples, emerging from its barbarism, rose to a respectable rank among the nations of Europe. He conferred many benefits on his subjects, and was generous and hospitable in his intercourse with strangers. As a

soldier, he led his men in person against the cannon to which he exposed them; and as a general, he never forsook the troops under his command until they forsook him.

In the French West India islands, the news of Napoleon's successful usurpation excited among the military great enthusiasm in his favour. At Martinique this feeling was so openly manifested, that the governor, who remained faithful to the royal cause, found it necessary to assemble the troops, and to release from their obligations those officers who desired it; informing them at the same time that they must quit the island, and that any attempt to raise the standard of rebellion would be repelled by force. On learning the precarious state of this valuable colony, sir James Leith, who had the command of the British troops stationed in the Leeward Islands, sent to the aid of the governor of Martinique a strong military force, which landed there on the 5th of June. All the French soldiers of the line, except about 450 men who remained loyal, were disarmed, and suffered to leave the island. To requite the English, the government published a decree, admitting British vessels into the harbours on the same terms as those of their own country.

At Guadaloupe the revolt of the military in favour of Napoleon was much more decisive. Admiral Linois, the governor, affecting great loyalty, had declined the aid of a British force, and offered to be responsible for the good behaviour of the garrison. On the 18th of June, having for the

sake of appearance remained a few hours under arrest, he complied with the demands of the soldiers, by displaying the tri-coloured flag, and proclaiming the restoration of the emperor Napoleon. Sir James Leith assembled a strong military and naval force at the small islands called the Saintes; and having learned that Linois and Boyer intended to unite their forces, amounting to about 6000 men, between Grande-terre and Basse-terre, he resolved to disembark in three different places, and attack the troops in detail on their march. The preliminary operations having been judiciously executed, the French governor was reduced to the necessity of proposing a capitulation; and the terms which he obtained were, that he and general Boyer, with the troops of the line, and those militia who were still in arms, should surrender as prisoners of war, and be sent to France, there to remain at the disposal of the duke of Wellington.

Since the assumption of the regal title by the prince of Orange, his prudence and moderation had been conspicuous. Subsequent to the battle of Waterloo, in which he had displayed all the heroism of the house of Orange, being wounded in the conflict, a committee had been appointed to draw up a constitution for the Seventeen Provinces. Their report had been transmitted to the sovereign in July, and was afterwards laid before an extraordinary assembly of the States of the United Netherlands, by whom it was unanimously accepted. The chief objection to this union had arisen from the strong attachment of Holland to

the reformed, and of Flanders to the catholic religion. This was strikingly manifested in an address from certain prelates to the king of the Netherlands, dated the 28th of July. In this address it was affirmed, "that the equal favour and protection to all religions promised by the new constitution, was inconsistent with the assurances of his majesty that the establishment and privileges of the catholic church should be preserved, and incompatible with the fundamental principle of that church." The king was further admonished, that such a regulation must sooner or later alienate the hearts of his subjects in those provinces, "with whom attachment to the catholic faith is stronger and more lively than in any other country in Europe." It does not appear, however, that this remonstrance produced any change in the system of toleration which had been resolved on; and a subsequent royal ordonnance professed to provide only for the security and freedom of the catholic church, without investing it with any exclusive authority. In September the ceremonial of the king's inauguration took place at Brussels, with every mark of general satisfaction. On this occasion the principal ecclesiastic of the cathedral of St Gedeule addressed a discourse to the king, replete with sentiments of Christian benevolence; and claiming for the catholic religion no more than the protection guaranteed by the constitution. Soon after the promulgation of this constitution, a matrimonial alliance took place between the prince of Orange

and the grand-duchess Anne, sister of the emperor Alexander.

It is now time that we glance at the domestic concerns of Great Britain during the year 1815. In the parliamentary discussions which arose on the royal message of the 22d of May, and its concomitant documents, lord Castlereagh stated, " that Austria, Russia, and Prussia, had engaged to furnish contingents in the following proportion :—Austria 300,000, Russia 225,000, Prussia 236,000 men; and the other states of Germany 150,000. Great Britain and Holland 50,000 each; and Britain to advance the sum of L.5,000,000 in subsidies. The measures of the ministry were supported by vast majorities in both houses, and the almost unanimous voice of the nation. Yet there were a few individuals in each house, distinguished for talent and integrity, who deprecated this warlike policy. They argued, that though Great Britain had been induced by powerful motives to concur in the restoration of Louis XVIII. she was under no obligation, by enormous exactions, to maintain his right and title to a crown which he had lost, by his own egregious indiscretion, before the first year of his reign had closed. Had he aimed to establish his throne in the hearts of his people, he might have scorned the efforts of a fallen adversary. But though Louis had not ventured to act altogether upon the plan of the Spanish and Neapolitan branches of his family, he had, by the feeble displays which his nature and situation would admit, excited the

utmost jealousy and resentment of France. If the Gallic Bourbons were now reinstated, said they, it must be effected solely by foreign force; and in such a case, success would be the triumph of despotism.

It was further argued, that the danger from France, despoiled as she was of her conquests, exhausted by her efforts, and opposed by a league the most formidable ever known, now no longer existed. Russia was evidently the power which threatened to overwhelm Europe. In that half civilized, half barbarous state of society, so favourable to military enterprise, she had within the compass of half a century extended her empire to the mouth of the Nieper and the Danube. By her last treaty with Sweden, she had seized upon all the provinces east of the Gulf of Bothnia; she had since appropriated the greater part of Poland, which, till crushed by the force and fraud of Russia, had for ages ranked among the leading powers of Christendom, and had long been its chief bulwark against the Turkish infidels. Prussia, restored as a kingdom by the arms of Russia, was sunk to a state almost of vassalage. In fine, the Russians having experienced the contrast between their own frozen deserts and the delightful regions of the south, would on the slightest pretexts be ever ready to attempt new conquests and new ravages, without any hazard of retaliation. Nor was the danger in the least abated by the personal character of the emperor Alexander; plausible, dissembling, rapacious, yet studious of

appearances, and affecting, so long as it served his purpose, to be the patron of liberal opinions. Even should the second restoration of the house of Bourbon be deemed indispensable, the powers of the continent were surely equal to the task, without again involving Britain in a contest, in which she had already for a long series of years borne so ruinous and disproportionate a share.

Such were the reasonings of the opposition, both within and without parliament, yet the current of public opinion, as in 1793, and again in 1803, set entirely in the opposite direction, and the subsidies were voted by the house of commons on a division of 160 to 17 members. The first-fruits of this appeared in an estimate of expenditure for the present year, of a magnitude exceeding all precedent; the amount being L. 80,000,000 for Great Britain, and L. 10,000,000 more for Ireland. To meet this astonishing demand, the war taxes were continued to the height. Two successive loans were negociated for L. 45,500,000, and a vote of credit passed for L. 6,000,000. Subsequent to the victory of Waterloo, the additional sum of L. 200,000 was voted to the duke of Wellington; and, in addition to the parliamentary and royal honours and rewards conferred on the conquerors of Waterloo, a national and truly noble subscription of nearly L. 500,000 was raised for the relief of the soldiers disabled by wounds, and the widows of the slain.

On presenting the money bills for the royal assent, the speaker of the house of commons ad-

dressed the prince regent in terms of the highest exultation. "The fate of Europe," said he, "has been again brought to issue. The conflict was tremendous, but the result has been glorious. The usurper of a throne which he has twice abdicated, has sought his safety in an ignominious flight, and the rightful sovereign of France has once more resumed the sceptre of his ancestors." On the 11th of July the parliament was prorogued by a speech from the throne, in which the two houses were exhorted "not to relax in their exertions to establish the permanent peace and security of Europe."

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## CHAPTER XII.

1816—1820.

THE nations of Europe, long harassed and enfeebled by war, now anxiously wished for repose. The union of the principal powers, and their political arrangements, seemed to promise a continuance of peace; a breathing time at least was gained for a revival of tranquil pursuits. As every thing is either sweetened or embittered by contrast, the change in this case was felt as a luxuriant enjoyment. A generation had passed away who had scarcely known any thing but a state of war; and in Britain, so grateful were the people for the return of peace, that even the



ministers, who had never been popular, received their due meed of praise.

After a long recess, the parliament reassembled on the 1st of February. To the A. D. 1816. speech of the prince regent the people anxiously looked for information, relief, and comfort; but the tenor of it only excited surprise in all reflecting minds, at the strangeness of its information. It congratulated the two houses, not only on the restoration of the country to a state of peace, through the re-establishment of the throne of the Bourbons, and the alliances contracted with all the confederated powers, but on the flourishing condition of the commerce, manufactures, and revenue of the kingdom. The commons were also assured, that they might rely on the disposition of his royal highness to co-operate in such measures of economy as should be found consistent with the security of the country, and the station which it occupied in Europe. Copies of the treaties concluded were then laid before parliament.

The return of peace, though it brought security in its train, did not diminish the burdens of the nation in that degree which was reasonably expected. A large standing army was maintained; and it was the intention of the ministry to continue the odious tax on property, not altogether at its full amount, but with a reduction of *five per cent.* This menace excited a general alarm, and the wantonness of ministerial profusion was loudly censured. Notwithstanding the

presentation of numerous petitions against the impost, the chancellor of the exchequer ventured to propose its continuance ; but the spirit of the house revolted from it ; and when it was exploded by a majority of thirty-seven votes, the shouts which arose from the unexpected popular triumph resounded over the whole neighbourhood.

The debates respecting a new settlement of the civil list were warm and acrimonious ; but it is a subject on which it is not necessary to dwell. Useless places and sinecures were pertinaciously retained ; and the aggregate allowance was augmented, though the payment of a considerable part of it out of a different fund, afforded a pretext for asserting that it was diminished. Lord Castlereagh soon after made a motion, which was acceded to, for the erection of a naval monument in honour of the battle of Trafalgar, of lord Nelson, and of the officers and seamen who lost their lives on that glorious occasion : this was a counterpart to the resolution lately carried for a Waterloo monument, dedicated to the duke of Wellington and the army.

Soon after the opening of the session, Mr Brougham moved for the production of a copy of a treaty entered into at Paris, on the 26th of September 1815, between the sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, and which had received the sign-manual of those potentates. By the tenor of this singular document, which received the name of "The Holy Alliance," being couched in the most devout and solemn language, the high

contracting parties declared their resolution to take for their sole guide, both in their domestic administration and foreign relations, the precepts of the holy religion of Christ their Saviour. In consequence they bound themselves to the observance of three articles :—The first of these united them in a fraternity of mutual assistance, and in the common protection of religion, peace, and justice ; which in the second article was explained to mean, that they regarded themselves as delegated by Providence to govern three branches of one and the same Christian nation, of which the Divine Being, under his three characters, was the sole real sovereign : The third article declared a readiness to receive into the holy alliance all the powers who should solemnly avow the sacred principles which had dictated it. Politicians were much perplexed to comprehend the meaning of an engagement at once so vague and so serious, which appeared to bind the contracting parties to nothing more than, as Christian princes, they stood already pledged to observe ; and it was stated to have originated in a kind of enthusiastic impression made on the mind of the emperor Alexander, who had published a manifesto on the subject, dated on Christmas day.

The production of this extraordinary document was resisted by lord Castlereagh, though he admitted that the prince regent had been urged by a joint letter of the three sovereigns to accede to it; and had in reply expressed his satisfaction with the nature of the treaty, and given an assur-

ance, that the British government would not be one of the least disposed to act up to its principles. Subsequent events seem to indicate, that a resolution to support the authority of each other against any revolutionary movement among their own subjects, was the true object of this mystical combination of princes, veiled by so thick a mantle of religion.

During the session a message from the prince regent announced the approaching marriage, with his consent, of his daughter, the princess Charlotte Augusta, with his serene highness Leopold George Frederick, prince of Saxe Coburg-Saalfeld, who had visited England in the train of the confederate sovereigns. His royal highness expressed his persuasion of the concurrence of the house in enabling him to make such provision on the occasion, as might correspond with the dignity and honour of the country. It was consequently proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, and unanimously agreed to by the house, that an income of L.60,000 should be settled on the illustrious pair; of which L.10,000 were to form a sort of privy purse for her royal highness, and the remainder was to defray the domestic expenses of the prince of Coburg; this sum to be settled on them for their joint lives. Should the prince of Coburg die first, the whole was to be continued to her royal highness: if he should be the survivor, the sum of L.50,000 was to be continued to him. The allowance to the princess from the civil list of L.30,000 a-year was to cease.

A further sum of £.60,000 was granted by way of outfit. The marriage took place on the 2d of May, and seemed to give general satisfaction. About the same time was married the duke of Gloucester to the princess Mary, fourth daughter of the king.

From the period of the restoration of king Ferdinand VII. to the Spanish throne, his reign had been characterized by a series of uncontrolled bigotry, cruelty, and despotism. In the autumn of the year 1815 a premature attempt was made by general Porlier, one of the guerilla chiefs, to excite the Gallicians to arms. In his proclamation, dated 19th September, he says, "No one is ignorant that the king, surrounded by unjust counsellors, has consented to a proscription so atrocious, that the most illustrious and deserving men have been the first victims of it: the flood-gates of despotism have been opened. In this situation, no alternative remains but to take up arms. Let us remove those wicked counsellors. Let us re-establish the cortes, and let them determine the system which is to govern us. In the mean time, let the provinces appoint their internal juntas."

The exhortations of this illustrious patriot, however, did not produce the expected effect; and after maintaining possession of Ferrol and Cullrunna for some days, he undertook an expedition to Compostella; in the course of which, being denounced by the clergy, who were very powerful in that city, and who are said to have lavished

their wealth in corrupting the troops, he found himself suddenly deserted; and being captured with most of his officers, he was thrown into the common prison, loaded with chains, and after a short interval condemned and executed, with many others of his companions in arms. On the arrival of the first exaggerated accounts of this insurrection at Madrid, the affrighted monarch dismissed the duke of San Carlos, prime minister, from his office, and Escoiquiez his confessor was removed to Cordova; but on the suppression of this abortive attempt, the *Liberales*, as they were styled, suffered under a more rigorous persecution than ever from this besotted monarch.

Mr Brougham, the able and intrepid advocate of freedom, drew the attention of the British public to the proceedings in Spain; and during the session of 1816 brought forward a motion for an address to the prince regent, "humbly entreating him to take into his gracious consideration the sufferings of the late Spanish regency and cortes; and representing, that the alliance at present subsisting between his royal highness and his catholic majesty affords the most favourable opportunity for interposing the good offices of Great Britain in their behalf, with the weight that belongs to her, and to the sentiments of this house and of the people." The speech of the honourable mover served at least the purpose of an historical narrative of the cruelties perpetrated by Ferdinand VII. against the brave men who had

contended for his crown, and also for a protest against measures by which he had compromised the interests, and in some degree the honour, of the British nation; whilst the answer of lord Castlereagh exhibited a temper decidedly hostile to the friends of liberty (*the Liberales*) in Spain, and a disposition to reprobate the invective so freely bestowed in this country on the conduct and character of his catholic majesty.

The distresses of the agricultural interest produced a number of petitions to parliament for relief. One member attributed the pressure to a combination of causes, but chiefly to the enormity of taxation; another to an *overtrading* in the bounty of the soil, and a consequent redundancy of produce: but all were at a loss to devise a promising remedy. The manufacturers at the same time complained of that want of employment which was occasioned by the general impoverishment of their countrymen. Riots arose in several counties from the discontent which this state of affairs produced. In Suffolk, large parties marched from one village to another, destroying or injuring the houses of individuals who were not considered as friends to the poor. In the county of Cambridge, a body of provincials extorted money from the inhabitants of Ely and Littleport, pillaged many of the shops, and continued their outrages until a party of dragoons and yeomanry appeared. A conflict ensued: the riot was quelled, and five of the delinquents being tried and condemned, were punished with death.

A riot at Norwich was more easily suppressed; and other commotions were insignificant and transitory.

Near the close of the year a popular meeting took place in Spa-Fields, Islington, and resolutions of reform, suggested by Mr Henry Hunt, were voted by acclamation. An apothecary of the name of Watson also harangued the rabble in the same neighbourhood; and the subsequent operations of those who listened to his oratory excited a temporary alarm in the metropolis. The rioters paraded the streets, carried off fire-arms from the shops of several gunsmiths, marched to the Royal Exchange, where they had a short contest with the lord mayor and some officers of the police; but they at length dispersed from the fear of a military attack. These disturbances did not seriously encroach however on the general tranquillity of the realm. The majority of the nation looked forward to a full enjoyment of the blessings of peace, and patiently waited for the removal of the prevailing distresses.

In the midst of the tranquillity of Europe, an unexpected war arose on the coast of Africa in the course of this year, which gave occasion for a display of the undaunted valour of the British navy, not less honourable in its principle than it was splendid and triumphant in its results. The predatory practices and abominable cruelties of the Algerines, and other barbarians on that coast, had long excited general indignation; and it was the particular wish of every commercial state, that



signal chastisement should be inflicted on those base pirates. As even British vessels were occasionally attacked by them, lord Exmouth, being ordered by the prince regent to try the effect of temperate expostulation, sailed to Algiers, and submitted three points to the Dey's consideration. One request was, that he should treat the Ionian Isles as if they were British colonies; the second point was, the propriety of concluding peace with the kings of Naples and Sardinia; and the third related to the abolition of Christian slavery, in his dominions. Explicit promises were given on the two first heads, but the other request was considered by the Dey too important to be hastily settled or readily conceded. The rulers of Tunis and Tripoli, who were also invited by the admiral, were more compliant than their brother of Algiers: they promised that they would not consign prisoners of war to the miseries or disgrace of slavery, but would treat them according to the practice of Christian nations.

Returning to Algiers, his lordship renewed his remonstrances, but without effect; and while he was thus employed, a brutal massacre was perpetrated at Bona upon many coral fishers, who were acting under the supposed security of the British flag. A fresh squadron, adapted to a bold enterprise, was therefore put under lord Exmouth's command; and he was also joined by vice-admiral Capellen, whom the king of the Netherlands had sent with a small fleet to further the success of the expedition.

The preparations which had been made for the defence of Algiers rendered the attack extremely dangerous; but nothing could deter or discourage the two commanders and their gallant associates. Lord Exmouth, in the *Queen Charlotte*, cast anchor so near the mole and the batteries, that the enemy seemed for a time confounded at this mark of intrepidity. The other ships followed, and took the stations which he prescribed, with a precision which even exceeded his hopes. On the 27th of August a tremendous fire was poured from the walls, the batteries, and the ships in the harbour; and it was answered with due spirit. A fire more tremendous on both sides than was almost ever before witnessed now commenced, and was continued from a quarter before three till nine without intermission, and partially for two hours longer. But the result was decisive. The bomb vessels, and the boats which had guns and rockets, ably seconded the operations of the larger ships; and "it was by their fire," says the admiral, "that all the ships in the port, except one, were in flames, which extended rapidly over the whole arsenal, store-houses, and gun-boats, exhibiting a spectacle of awful grandeur and interest which no pen can describe." Sufficient havock having been made, the assailants slowly retired, waiting the effect of that defeat and disgrace which had been now inflicted on these barbarians. Dreading the renewal of the attack, the Dey listened to the offer of terms: these were,—the abolition for ever of Christian

slavery; the immediate surrender up to his lordship of all slaves, of whatever nation, in the dominions of the Dey, and of all the money received by him for the redemption of slaves since the beginning of the year; a public acknowledgment made, and pardon asked by the Dey of the British consul, in the presence of his ministers and officers. Above one thousand of those unhappy exiles were now liberated, and conveyed freely to their own shores; and the sums of money recovered, amounting to near 400,000 dollars, were transmitted by the captors to the courts of Naples and Sardinia. This gallant enterprise, which Great Britain performed for the general good of Christendom, without stipulation and without reimbursement, cost her however a number of valuable lives: it has been stated that these amounted to 128 British seamen killed, and 690 wounded.

The session of parliament was opened, January A. D. 1817. the 28th, by the prince regent in person. The speech from the throne stated the anxious desire of government to make every reduction which the safety of the empire and "true policy" would allow; the deficiency in the revenue was acknowledged, but ascribed to temporary causes; continued assurances of amity from foreign powers were mentioned; but the most remarkable passages of this speech are those which relate to the state of the country as drawn in the late petitions. "I am too well convinced," said his royal highness, "of the loyalty

and good sense of the great body of his Majesty's subjects, to believe them to be capable of being perverted by the arts which are employed to seduce them; but I am determined to omit no precautions for preserving the public peace, and for counteracting the designs of the disaffected: and I rely with the utmost confidence on your cordial support and co-operation in upholding a system of law and government, from which we have derived inestimable advantages; which has enabled us to conclude with unexampled glory a contest whereon depended the best interests of mankind; and which has been hitherto felt by ourselves, as it is acknowledged by other nations, to be the most perfect which has fallen to the lot of any people."

On the return of the prince regent from the house of peers an immense crowd had assembled in the park, by whom he was received with marked demonstrations of popular resentment; and on passing Carleton-house the glass of the carriage was broken by a stone; nor was it without some difficulty that he at length reached the palace. This flagrant outrage being on the same day reported by lord Sidmouth to parliament, the two houses joined in an address suitable to the occasion: moreover, a thousand pounds reward was offered, but in vain, for the discovery of the offender.

On the address brought forward as usual in reply to the speech of the prince regent, earl Grey moved an amendment, importing an opinion

"that the pressure on the resources of the country was much more extensive in its operation, more severe in its effects, more deep and general in its causes, and more difficult of removal, than had ever before been experienced; and that the house would immediately enter upon an inquiry into the state of the nation." Marquis Wellesley affirmed, "that the distress of the country had grown to a magnitude which no art or colour of language could disguise; that a speech so inadequate to the exigencies of the times he had never heard." The amendment was negatived without a division; and a similar motion by Mr Ponsonby in the commons, by a majority of 264 to 118 voices.

On the 8d of February a message was brought down from the prince regent to both houses of parliament, announcing that he had ordered papers to be laid before parliament, containing information of certain practices, meetings, and combinations, in the metropolis and in different parts of the kingdom, evidently calculated to endanger the public tranquillity, to alienate the affections of his Majesty's subjects from his person and government, and to bring into hatred and contempt the whole system of our laws and government. On the motion of ministers these papers were referred by each house to a secret committee of the members. The reports of the two committees were delivered to their respective houses on the 18th and 19th of February; and

through them the following somewhat alarming statements were made to the public:—

“That a traitorous conspiracy had been formed in the metropolis for the purpose of overthrowing, by means of an insurrection, the established government, laws, and constitution of the realm; and of effecting a general plunder and division of property: that traces appeared of a central committee in London, which communicated with clubs and associations in various parts of the country, but chiefly in the manufacturing districts; some of which associations were bound together by secret and unlawful oaths: that the late popular assemblages in Spa-Fields were intended to subserve the purposes of the conspirators; that the riotous attack on the gunsmiths’ shops in the city, for the purpose of procuring arms, was the commencement of an insurrection, which, if successful, was to have been followed by desperate attempts upon the Tower, the Bank, and the Barracks at Knightsbridge and other points.” It appeared however that no adequate preparations of any kind had been made for the execution of these designs; and that no person in the higher, and scarcely any in the middle classes of life, had taken part with them. Much was also said of the dangerous notions disseminated by a political sect called Spenceans respecting a community of lands, and of the seditious and blasphemous writings industriously dispersed among the lower classes.” Both reports concluded by invoking the interference of

parliament to obviate dangers which the utmost vigilance of government, under the existing laws, had been found inadequate to avert.

The first result of these proceedings was a motion by lord Sidmouth in the upper house, for a suspension of the habeas corpus act until the 1st of July ensuing; which was carried by a great majority, though not without strong opposition from several eminent noblemen, and a protest signed by eighteen of the number, who dissented from the measure, on the ground that the report of the secret committee had not stated such a case of imminent and pressing danger, as might not be provided against by the existing laws, or one which warranted the suspension of the most important security to the liberty of the country. In the house of commons, lord Castlereagh made a motion to a similar effect; giving notice at the same time of farther measures for the protection of the country against the machinations of the disaffected. These were,—first, the extending of the act of 1795, for the security of his Majesty's person, to that of his royal highness the prince regent; secondly, the embodying into one act the provisions of the act of 1795, relative to tumultuous meetings and debating societies, and the provisions of the act of the 39th of the king, which declared the illegality of all societies bound together by secret oaths, and of such as extended themselves by fraternized branches over the kingdom; and, lastly, the making of enactments to punish with the utmost rigour any attempt to

gain over soldiers or sailors to act with any association or set of men, or to withdraw them from their allegiance.

Secured by these bills, the ministers boldly prosecuted their career, and judging that some condemnations for treason would still further strengthen the throne, they ordered an indictment to be prepared against Watson, the apothecary, and three of his associates; but the jury acquitted the first, and the attorney-general then declared, in a tone of gracious condescension, that he would not prosecute the rest. The truth is, that there were not sufficient grounds for a charge of high-treason, the offenders being merely guilty of seditious practices; but in a commotion which occurred about the time of this process the movements of the disaffected bore a treasonable form.

Imputing the distress of the people to misgovernment and the want of reform, a person resident in the county of Nottingham, whose name was Brandreth, aided by several other manufacturers, strenuously exerted themselves to organize an insurrection in that county; yet, with all their clamour and persuasion, they could muster only a very small party. They seem to have flattered themselves with the fond hope of a general rising of the lower classes of provincials, or at least of that strength of combination which might enforce a redress of grievances; but the result was, that these infatuated men only deluded themselves, and precipitated their ruin. Brand-



reth added the guilt of murder to the criminality of treason ; for when a family refused to give up the fire-arms kept in their house, he shot one of the inmates without hesitation. Brandreth was apprehended, and after a fair trial was condemned to death. Turner and Ludlam, two of his associates, were also found guilty, and suffered with him.

On the 3d of June another message was brought down from the prince regent, accompanying fresh documents respecting the proceedings of the disaffected, which, as before, were intrusted to the examination of a committee of secrecy. In the report of this committee the following remarkable admission was made : That the evidence laid before the committee had been principally derived from the depositions and communications of persons who were either themselves more or less implicated in these criminal transactions, or who had apparently engaged in them with the view of giving information to government : that the evidence of both these classes of persons must be regarded with a degree of suspicion ; and that there was reason to apprehend, that the language and conduct of some of the latter might, in certain instances, have had the effect of encouraging designs which it was intended that they should only be the instruments of detecting. This employment of spies, which was openly avowed and defended by the ministers, exposed them to much reproach both within the house and out of it ; but on the new alarm which was excited by

means of this second report, the ministers obtained a fresh suspension of the habeas corpus, to extend to 1st March 1818.

A circular letter, addressed by viscount Sidmouth, as secretary for the home department, to the lord-lieutenants of counties, gave occasion to some strong animadversions in both houses of parliament. In this document his lordship had stated, that as it was of the greatest importance to prevent, if possible, the circulation of the blasphemous and seditious pamphlets and writings now distributed in great numbers through the country, he had thought it his duty to consult the law officers of the crown, whether a person found selling, or in any other way publishing such writings, might be brought immediately before a justice of the peace, by warrant, to answer for his conduct? That the law officers, after consideration, had notified to him their opinion, that a justice of the peace might issue his warrant for the apprehension of a person charged before him, on oath, with the publication of such libels, and compel him to give bail to answer the charge. Under these circumstances, his lordship desired to call the attention of lord-lieutenants particularly to the subject, and requested that they would notify such opinion to the chairman at the quarter-sessions, in order that magistrates might act upon it.

This subject was taken up in the house of lords by earl Grey, in a speech replete with legal information, in which he contended against the

principle, that a justice of the peace might be called upon by any common informer to decide what was or was not a libel, and to commit or hold to bail, upon his sole judgment, the party accused. He also held, that such a specific instruction to magistrates, as to the way in which they were to construe the law, even supposing the law itself clear and undisputed, would have been a high offence against the constitution. Sir Samuel Romilly introduced the same subject in the house of commons, and forcibly exposed the tyranny and oppression to which this unwarranted interpretation of the law, as he held it to be, would open a door: he also enlarged on the dangerous authority assumed in this instance by an officer of the crown. Further proceedings in the business were quashed by the usual majorities.

Mr Wilberforce embraced an opportunity before the close of the session, to call the attention of the house of commons to the slave trade, which was still carried on without molestation by the subjects of France, Spain, and more especially Portugal, which had extended its traffic along the whole coast of Africa; so that the accession of these powers to the eventual abolition was a mere dead letter. He consequently moved an address to the prince regent, praying "that he would be pleased to pursue with unremitting activity the negotiations into which he had already entered on this important subject." Lord Castlereagh suggested the danger of interfering with pending negotiations; but as the house betrayed no

symptoms of alarm on that head, he acquiesced in the motion, which passed unanimously.

Towards the close of the session, Mr Abbot, who had held the office of speaker in five successive parliaments with distinguished reputation, intimated his intention of resigning, on account of indisposition; and was soon afterwards called to the house of lords, by the title of lord Colchester; an annuity of L.4000 being moreover granted to him for his meritorious services. The right honourable Charles Manners Sutton was elected in his place; and the parliament was prorogued in person by the prince regent, in a speech of high approbation, on the 12th of July.

In the month of August arrived at Portsmouth, from his embassy to China, lord Amherst, who had left England in 1816, and arrived off the Chinese coast in the following July. Whatever were the advantages anticipated from this expensive equipment, of which indeed the prospect, after the total failure of the former embassy by lord Macartney, must have been very faint, they were entirely frustrated by the refusal of lord Amherst to submit to the degrading ceremonial of prostration now required by the court of Peking, though dispensed with in the person of his predecessor. The emperor, however, in his "imperial mandate to the king of England," for such was the language of the court of Peking, expressed his satisfaction "at the disposition of profound respect, and due obedience, which were visible in sending this embassy." "I therefore," says he,

“thought proper to take from the articles of tribute a few maps, with some prints and portraits. In return, I ordered to be given to you, O king, a *jouée* (a string of imperial beads), two large silk purses, and eight small ones, as a proof of our tender and indulgent conduct. Your country is too remote from the central and flourishing empire. Besides, your ambassador, it would seem, does not know how to practise the rites and ceremonies of the central empire. There will be no occasion hereafter for you to send an ambassador from so great a distance, and to give him the trouble of passing over mountains and crossing the ocean. If you do but pour out the heart in dutiful obedience, it is by no means necessary, at any stated time, to come to the celestial presence.” Such was the haughty language of rebuke in which the emperor of China thought proper to address the king of England, after which, it can hardly be expected that a third embassy to China will speedily take place.

The 6th of November this year was rendered fatally memorable by the sudden and melancholy demise of the princess Charlotte of Wales, presumptive heiress of the crown, immediately after the birth of a still-born infant. Her nuptials in the preceding year had afforded much satisfaction to the nation, and this was considerably augmented when it was announced, that she was in a situation likely to afford an eventual heir to the British throne; and rarely had the hopes and wishes of a whole people been so deeply interested

in a similar event. This double calamity, so sudden and so irreparable, filled the whole land with mourning. In fact, her death caused an unfeigned sensation of sorrow in every court and every country throughout Europe; and even in the distant regions of Asia and America. The youth of the royal sufferer; the state of conjugal felicity which she was understood to enjoy with the partner of her choice; the domestic virtues which adorned her character; and lastly, the consideration that she was the sole progeny in the second degree from the royal stock—all conspired to imbitter the sense of loss, and to render the public grief not only keen but lasting. Her remains were conveyed to the royal vault at Windsor on the 19th of November, with every solemnity suited to the melancholy occasion, prince Leopold himself sustaining the afflicting office of chief mourner.

ing compliments and frivolous ostentation of a crowded and courtly drawing-room. She had cultivated her mind with care and assiduity; she added to a taste for literature the elegant and ornamental accomplishments suited to her sex and station; and her moral purity was refined by the influence of religion. In short, her virtues, her accomplishments, her principles, her prudence and discretion in a situation of peculiar difficulty, were fully appreciated; and the hope, enthusiastically cherished, of future felicity under her government, had no parallel since the days of Elizabeth, whose name she had often on her lips, and whom, in all that was great and excellent, she was ambitious to resemble. Thus untimely faded "the expectancy and rose of the fair state."

The general regret had not entirely subsided when, on the 28th of January, the A. D. 1818. British parliament reassembled. The prince regent then declared, that it was a soothing consolation to his heart to receive from all descriptions of his Majesty's subjects the most cordial assurances, both of their just sense of the loss which they had sustained, and of their sympathy with his parental sorrow; and that, amidst his own sufferings, he had not been unmindful of the effect which this sad event must have on the interests and future prospects of the kingdom.

The affairs of this session were not remarkably interesting. The first bill that was brought forward was one which the ministers were very

eager to announce, with a view of convincing the public that they had no wish to encroach upon constitutional liberty. It provided for a repeal of that act of suspension, which, they pretended, was necessary for the security of the state. As they could not deny that some irregularities had been committed in the exercise of the great powers which had been allowed on that occasion, they demanded from the two houses a bill of indemnity for themselves, and for all who had acted under them, in the seizure and detention of reputed offenders. This bill was warmly opposed by lords Erskine and King, and also by Mr Lambton and sir Samuel Romilly. This last gentleman pointedly remarked, that instead of being (as his friend had called it) the winding up of that system of injustice upon which the ministers had been acting, it seemed to be "a prelude to further exertions of power, and to future denials of justice." The observation, as will appear in the sequel, was prophetic.

The subject of education, particularly that of the poor, occasioned some debates in parliament. It was generally believed that shameful abuses and embezzlements had disgraced the characters of many trustees, appointed to superintend the application of those funds which were destined to aid the purposes of public instruction. Mr Brougham therefore proposed, that persons of learning, judgment, and respectability, should be authorized to make a strict inquiry into the execution of every trust of this kind. A bill to that



effect received the royal assent, after its spirit had been diluted in its progress by the arbitrary jealousy of the lord chancellor.

The diffusion of religious knowledge also occupied the attention of both houses of parliament. A message was brought down from the prince regent, desiring them to direct their attention "to the deficiency which had so long existed in the number of places of worship belonging to the established church, when compared with the increasing population of the country," and L.1,000,000 Sterling was voted for the building of new churches. But as that sum was evidently insufficient for the number which seemed to be requisite, it was proposed that pecuniary subscriptions should be promoted by all the weight of influence for that meritorious object. Lord Holland suggested the expediency of drawing a large sum for this purpose from the richly endowed church of England; but this idea was instantly exploded by the higher clergy, although the archbishop of Canterbury and some of his brethren contributed by individual donations to the increase of the fund.

A royal message, on the 13th of April, announced the intended marriages of the dukes of Clarence and Cambridge, to the princesses of Saxe Meinungen and Hesse-Cassel; and, soon after, that of the duke of Kent to the dowager princess of Saxe Leinengen, sister of prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg. The prince regent at the same time expressed "his reliance on the readi-

ness of parliament to make the necessary provision for the same," which gave rise to a memorable debate.

A previous meeting of those members whose support was deemed essential on this occasion being convened at the house of the minister, it was proposed, that L.22,000 per annum should be added to the parliamentary revenue of the duke of Clarence, and L.12,000 severally to the dukes of Kent, Cumberland, and Cambridge, a year's income being paid in advance. This would amount to L.116,000 the first year, and L.58,000 permanent increase of revenue. So little encouragement, however, did this project meet with in the outset, that lord Castlereagh thought it prudent to limit the proposition which he submitted to the house on the 15th of April, to an addition of L.10,000 to the duke of Clarence, and L.6000 to the other dukes. The latter sum was not objected to; but no reason being assigned why the house should shew any partiality to the duke of Clarence, Mr H. Sumner moved an amendment, placing him on the same level, which was carried by 193 to 184 voices.

On the following day, the question was put on the resolution relative to the duke of Cambridge, which was carried by 177 to 95 votes; but the same motion respecting the duke of Cumberland was negatived by a majority of 143 to 136 members. The duchess of Cumberland was, however, included in the reversionary provision of L.6000 per annum for the intended consorts of the royal

dukes. The duke of Clarence unadvisedly declared his determination, through the medium of lord Castlereagh, should the vote of the committee be confirmed, wholly to decline the proposed addition; and lord Castlereagh intimated that the negotiation of the marriage might in that case be considered as at an end. This communication was received with perfect indifference; and the L. 6000 was apparently saved to the public, though ultimately it proved otherwise.

A message from the duchess of Cumberland, delivered by lord Levison Gower, was listened to with far different feeling. His lordship declared, in the name of her royal highness, "that the first impression on her mind was, that although it was impossible for her not to feel a grateful sense of the kindness of the house, yet from delicacy she ought not to accept of the provision, lest, by concurring in any measure of that nature, she might appear to be separating her interests from those of her husband. But as it was the anxious desire of his royal highness the duke of Cumberland, that, whatever might happen to him, her royal highness might be amply provided for, she had made to the wish of the duke a sacrifice of that feeling to which she alluded. Her royal highness, while she entertained the highest sense of the kindness of the house, hoped and trusted that she might never become a burden on a people by whom she had been treated with so much generosity."

This touched the true chords of English feeling, and it was heard with marked approbation ; but the duke's situation was now painful, and in the course of the summer, he, with the duchess, again withdrew to the continent. The same addition of £.6000 was subsequently voted to the duke of Kent. In April the princess Elizabeth, third daughter of the king, was married to the hereditary prince of Hesse Homberg ; but no application was made to parliament on that account.

A treaty, alluded to in the speech from the throne, between England and Spain, relative to the slave trade, was laid before the house with peculiar satisfaction by lord Castlereagh. Conformably to the articles of this treaty, Spain, in consideration of the sum of £.400,000 to be paid her by England, in compensation of the losses which had been or might be sustained by the subjects of his catholic majesty engaged in that traffic, consented to its abolition on all the coasts of Africa north of the line, still leaving it open to the south. What advantage could arise from this treaty seemed difficult to discover ; and as to the money to be paid by England, who was doomed to pay for every thing, and by whom all indemnification had been refused to her own merchants, it would in all probability, under the existing circumstances, be appropriated by Ferdinand to the odious and unavailing purpose of subjugating the revolted provinces of South America ; and those, of whom the number was by no means small, who saw an insidious meaning in every act of lord

Castlereagh, deemed this to be the true intent of the treaty. A convention was also concluded with Portugal to the same effect. Such was the result of the address moved by Mr Wilberforce at the close of the former session.

The declining health of her majesty queen Charlotte at this time, occasioned a bill to be introduced into parliament, for varying and amending some of the provisions of the regency act. Its first object was to enable her majesty to nominate additional members of the council to assist in the trust reposed in her with regard to the care of the king's person; and the second referred to the possible case of a cessation on the part of the queen to hold that charge. The new members of council were the earl of Macclesfield, the bishop of London, lord St Helens, and lord Henley, all of whom were to reside at Windsor in the event of her absence from that residence. On the 10th of June the session of parliament terminated by a speech from the prince regent, congratulating the two houses "on the manifest improvement of the internal circumstances of the country, and the growing indications of national prosperity;" immediately after which the lord chancellor declared it to be the will and pleasure of the prince regent that the parliament be now dissolved.

On the 4th of November the plenipotentiaries of the courts of Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, and Russia, assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle, where they addressed to the duke of Richelieu, the French

minister, the following important document :— That their august masters being called upon, by the 20th article of the treaty of Paris, to examine, in concert with the king of France, whether the military occupation of a part of the French territory, stipulated by that treaty, ought to cease at the termination of the third year, or be prolonged to that of the fifth ; had recognized with satisfaction, that the order of things established by the restoration of the legitimate and constitutional monarchy of that country, gave assurance of the consolidation of that state of tranquillity in France necessary to the repose of Europe ; and that in consequence they had commanded the immediate discontinuance of such military occupation,—a measure which they regarded as the completement of the peace. The intelligence of this emancipation was hailed with ecstasy by the French people ; and the event happily proved, that the presence of foreign bayonets was no longer necessary to the stability of the throne of Louis XVIII.

Her majesty queen Charlotte expired at Kew palace on the 7th of November, in the 75th year of her age, after a lingering decline, attended with much suffering, which is said to have been sustained with great fortitude and resignation. She merited the respect of the nation by her conjugal and maternal character, by the uniform propriety of her conduct, and by the strict decorum which she maintained in her court. Her ruling passion in the decline of life was believed to be the accu-

mulation of riches; and the political influence which she acquired during the illness of the king in 1788, she maintained to the last; but it was thought to be invariably employed on the unpopular side of the question.

The new parliament was convened for the dispatch of business on the 14th of January, A. D. 1819. and on the 21st a speech was delivered by the lord chancellor, who, with the lord president, the lord privy seal, and the other lords commissioners, was empowered to open the parliament, stating "the commands of the prince regent to express the deep regret felt by him for the continuance of his majesty's lamented indisposition. The severe calamity caused by the demise of the queen would render the consideration of parliament necessary as to the measures to be adopted respecting the care of his majesty's sacred person. His royal highness was persuaded that parliament would view with peculiar satisfaction the intimate union which so happily subsisted among the powers who were parties to the late congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. His royal highness had the greatest pleasure in being able to inform the parliament, that the trade, commerce, and manufactures of the country were in a very flourishing condition! And in adverting to the papers relative to India, which the prince regent had directed to be laid before the two houses, the lords commissioners had the commands of his royal highness to inform them, that the operations undertaken against the Pindarees were dictated

by the strictest principles of self-defence; and that, in the extended hostilities which followed, the Mahratta princes were in every instance the aggressors!"

The addresses in answer to the regent's speech were voted without opposition, and both houses condoled with his royal highness on the death of his venerable parent queen Charlotte. It was now proposed that the duke of York should have the custody of the royal person; and that he should be remunerated with an annual grant of L. 10,000, for the great trouble and extraordinary expense which must unavoidably attend his occasional journeys to Windsor. After warm debates this allowance was voted; but, at the same time, the Windsor establishment was reduced.

The financial arrangements of the year were, upon the whole, burdensome and oppressive. An encroachment was made on the sinking fund, by an application of L. 13,500,000 of its produce to the immediate exigencies of the state; and new taxes were imposed to the amount of L. 3,000,000, with a view of supporting public credit, by the creation of an annual surplus of L. 5,000,000 above the expenditure. This singular mode of relief was not very pleasing to the nation; yet the scheme was sanctioned by a majority of 197 votes. The whole of the minister's plan of finance was strongly reprobated, and pointedly ridiculed, by Mr Tierney, who termed it a mere series of paltry tricks and inconsistent expedients.



In adverting to public affairs at the commencement of the session, the prince regent had taken notice of the war which had disturbed the tranquillity of British India, while peace prevailed in Europe. It arose from the licentious and predatory spirit of the Pindarees,—an association of tribes of various countries, and different religious principles, conducted by chieftains who had acquired fame and wealth in the Mahratta wars. Physical strength and activity, and the possession of a horse, a lance, and a sword, were considered as sufficient qualifications for the honour of being incorporated with this fraternity. The incursions of these marauders into the Company's territories became so alarmingly mischievous, that the marquis of Hastings found it necessary to draw the sword against them, to prevent the repetition of invasions, which, he says, “had for two years ravaged the Madras dependencies with circumstances of unexampled horror.”

As Scindiah and other Mahratta chiefs, jealous of the British ascendancy and power, were inclined to protect the banditti, the governor-general was apprehensive of a dangerous extension of hostilities; but he overawed one and disabled another; and when the peishwa rushed into war in 1817, a well disciplined force was ready to meet him. The courage of that chieftain seemed to fail, when the British and native troops, after a victorious progress, reached the vicinity of Poona. The chief object now was the seizure of his person: Leaving the city to his enemies, he

retired with his artillery ; but after a long pursuit he was discovered by general Smith in an encampment near Ashta. A conflict immediately ensued, in which Goklah the Mahratta chief lost his life, while the peishwa escaped with the feeble remains of his force. He was afterwards attacked and defeated near Sewni ; and being harassed by a continuance of vigorous pursuit, he surrendered himself to sir John Malcolm. He consequently renounced all claim to the government of Poonah, and being gratified with a considerable pension, engaged to retire into private life, in some part of the British territory. The Pindarees in a variety of actions suffered so severely, that their force seemed to be broken, and their association nearly annihilated ; and the governor, with humane policy, formed two colonies out of the remains of their bands, and planted them in the fertile districts of Gorouckpour and Bopal.

A topic deeply interesting to the enlightened friends of humanity occupied the early attention of the new parliament. This was the state of the criminal code. The prodigious multitude and variety of offences, amounting to above two hundred in detail, against which the punishment of death was denounced by the English statute-book, had long been reprobated by philanthropists as a national disgrace, and stigmatized by philosophical lawyers as a fruitful source of crime and mischief. It has often been observed, that the certainty rather than the severity of punishment tends to deter offenders ; and it was obvious that

penalties which the general feeling of society condemned as incommensurate with offences, were of all others the most certain of being inflicted. These principles had been frequently brought before the house by sir Samuel Romilly, who had proposed several bills founded upon them, one of which was carried into a law. The lamented death of this eminent person had now thrown the cause into other hands, but it was pursued with unabated ardour.

On the 9th of February Mr Wilberforce presented a petition from the people called quakers, praying for a revival of the penal code. A petition was also presented from the corporation of London, complaining of the increase of crimes, and pointing out the commutation of capital punishment as a remedy: This was heard with marked attention by both houses, and ordered to be printed. Ministers proposed to refer the subject to a committee, which it was agreed to appoint for the examination of the police and discipline of prisons. This committee was formed on the motion of lord Castlereagh, on the 1st of March; and on the following day sir James Mackintosh rose to make a motion to this effect. After many excellent observations, and a number of striking details, tending to illustrate the system of subterfuge which the exorbitant severity of the law in many cases had produced among prosecutors, juries, and witnesses, and the frequent impunity and increase of crime resulting from the

same cause, the learned gentleman proceeded to explain his particular views.

It was by no means his intention, he said, to form a new criminal code, or altogether to abolish a system of law admirable in its principles, interwoven with the habits of the English people, and under which they had so long and happily lived;—that was a proposition very remote from his principles of legislation. Neither did he propose to abolish the punishment of death, holding it to be a part of the right of self-defence with which societies were endowed, and considering it, like all other punishments, as an evil when unnecessary, but capable, like them, of producing preponderating good. Nor yet did he aim at establishing any universal principle: his sole object was to bring the letter of the law more near to its practice; to make the execution of the law form the majority, and the remission the minority of cases.

He afterwards divided capital felonies into three classes;—those on which the punishment of death was always,—those on which it was very often,—and those on which it was never put in force. The first and second divisions he proposed for the present to leave untouched: the last, consisting of no less than an hundred and fifty different crimes, ought, he conceived, to be expunged entirely from the list, as the relics of barbarous times, and disgraceful to the character of a thinking and enlightened people. Lord Castle-reagh passed many compliments on the candid

and moderate spirit in which the honourable and learned gentleman had brought forward his motion; but he persisted in opposing the appointment of a separate committee. Other members, however, strenuously supported the measure, and it was finally carried by a majority of 147 to 128 voices. Before the end of the session, sir James Mackintosh, as chairman of the committee, had the satisfaction of reporting progress.

During this session of parliament and the succeeding months, the political horizon of Great Britain bore a clouded aspect. A numerous part of the community, chiefly of the operative class of citizens, became clamorous for what they termed a radical reform, as the only remedy for grievances that were become intolerable; and their tone had risen to such an elevation at the time of the prorogation, that the speech from the throne noticed, in the language of asperity, the "attempts which had been made in some of the manufacturing districts, to take advantage of circumstances of local distress to excite a spirit of disaffection to the institutions and government of the country." Meetings took place in various parts, and strong resolutions were voted. At Manchester, Leeds, Stockport, &c., multitudes of artisans and manufacturers were convened to listen to speeches from popular orators, and to pass by acclamation resolutions for annual parliaments, universal suffrage, and voting by ballot. In general these assemblages were regularly convoked and dissolved without any tumultuous pro-

ceedings, though with minds greatly inflamed by wild declamation against what were called the usurpations of the higher orders, and the intolerable sufferings of the poor. Yet it afterwards appeared, that some of the most violent of these harangues were made by the spies of government.

At Birmingham a meeting was held, not fewer than 15,000 persons being present, when these reformists seem to have reached the pinnacle of political audacity, by electing as their representative in parliament for that populous town and its vicinity, sir Charles Wolseley, a gentleman of property and character in the neighbourhood, who was so extremely indiscreet as to accept the delegation. Leeds and Manchester announced their intention of imitating the example of Birmingham. It now, therefore, became necessary for the government, which had hitherto shewn extraordinary forbearance, to interpose its authority; and warrants were issued for the apprehension of sir Charles Wolseley and others. The reformists of Manchester, who had appointed a day for the election of a representative, were apprized by the magistrates that this procedure was illegal, and would not be allowed; on which they changed their design, and appointed another day for the sole purpose of petitioning for a reform in parliament.

Accordingly, on the 16th of August, pursuant to notice given by means of hand-bills, placards, and advertisements, the meeting was held in an open space called St Petersfield, near a church

of that name in Manchester. During the whole morning, large bodies of reformers arrayed in regular order, continued marching in from the neighbouring towns and villages. Each party or division had its own banner, bearing some short inscription or motto, such as "No corn laws," "Universal suffrage," "Vote by ballot," "Liberty or death," &c. &c. The numbers collected on this occasion were estimated at 50,000 or 60,000, many being induced to attend from the mere eagerness of curiosity. A band of special constables, as was requisite, took their stations on the ground, and the utmost order and decency prevailed throughout this immense multitude; not the slightest suspicion prevailing of criminality or of danger in their proceedings.

The chairman of this meeting was a Mr Henry Hunt, a demagogue of more talent than principle. Having ascended the platform, he harangued the immense mob, expressing his full confidence in their orderly and peaceable demeanour; nor was any offensive weapon to be seen in the whole assemblage. While he was engaged in making his speech, a troop of the Manchester yeomanry cavalry suddenly appeared at the extremity of the field. Making their way to the hustings, the commanding officer told Hunt he was his prisoner; and immediately took him into custody, with several others who were standing beside him. The yeomanry then began to strike at the banners, charging right and left with their drawn swords, and dashing through

all that obstructed their passage. A dreadful scene of confusion and terror ensued ; numbers being trampled under the feet of the horses, or cut down, men and women indiscriminately, by the sabres. The Manchester magistrates, who viewed this bloody scene from the windows of a house at a convenient distance, are said to have read the riot act ; but if they actually did so, the fact was known to very few ; and it is certain that no time was allowed for dispersion, conformably to the requisition of the act, as scarcely twenty minutes had elapsed from the opening of the meeting before the massacre began. The number of killed and wounded was estimated at between 300 and 400 ; but in a short time the ground was cleared, and military patrols were stationed in the principal streets.

On the 21st of August a cabinet council was held, when a dispatch from the Manchester magistrates to lord Sidmouth was taken into consideration, and a letter of thanks returned in the name and by the command of the prince regent, to the magistrates of Manchester, " for their prompt, decisive, and efficient measures for the preservation of the public tranquillity," including also Major Trafford, and the military serving under him, " for the support and assistance lent by them to the civil power." The feelings of the court and those of the country, however, in reference to this alarming and unprecedented transaction, were completely at variance ; for the latter, through its whole ex-



tent, seemed to be pervaded by one common sensation of terror and indignation: and addresses, strongly expressive of these sentiments, were presented from the city of London and various other places, to the regent, earnestly praying for inquiry.

Among other places that held meetings for the purpose of petitioning the legislature to inquire into the late proceedings at Manchester, a numerous one was convened at York by the high-sheriff, and sanctioned by the presence of earl Fitzwilliam, as well as many other persons of rank and consequence. At this meeting appropriate resolutions were passed, and a petition was voted to the prince regent, to institute an inquiry; the only effect of which was the dismissal of that highly respected nobleman from his lieutenancy. In the reply to the city of London, the regent referred the sufferers "to the tribunals of the country, if any injury had been sustained;" but the Lancashire grand jury threw out all the bills preferred against those concerned in the outrages and enormities perpetrated on that fatal day.

The meeting of parliament, which was impatiently expected by all parties, took place on the 23d of November. The regent, on A. D. 1819. passing to and from the house of peers, was rudely assailed with hisses and groans from an immense populace. In his speech from the throne he lamented the necessity of

it was by the prevalence of seditious practices, which had been carried on with increased vigour since the last session. "They have led," said his royal highness, "to proceedings incompatible with the public tranquillity, and with the peaceful habits of the industrious part of the community: And a spirit is now manifested utterly hostile to the constitution of this kingdom, aiming not only at the change of those political institutions which have hitherto constituted the pride and security of this country, but at the subversion of the rights of property, and all order in society." The speech concluded with proposing vigorous measures against the daring abettors of radical reform.

Restrictive bills were consequently introduced, with little regard to the spirit of the constitution. One was directed against the authors and publishers of blasphemous and seditious libels, who, for a second offence, were liable to a heavy fine, imprisonment, or transportation. By another act, cheap periodical publications, which were supposed to be more particularly instrumental in poisoning the minds of the rabble, were subjected to a stamp-duty, that they might either be discontinued, or placed beyond the reach of the poor. A third statute prohibited all meetings for the purpose of training or drilling, without permission from legal authority. A fourth bill was calculated to meet the danger of insurrectionary commotions, by a seizure of fire-arms, even in the recesses of a person's house, (which

the law formerly considered as his castle), wherever it might be suspected or pretended that they were not kept merely for useful occasions. Political meetings were still tolerated; but it was required by another bill, that, with the exception of those which were called by a sheriff, mayor, or other magistrate, seven reputable householders should come forward to request the permission of assembling; and that all strangers, or persons of a different parish, who should appear at any meeting of this kind, and not retire after a regular warning, should be amenable to justice for a misdemeanour. Such were the outworks erected by the ministers round the fortress of the constitution, which however they rather impaired than strengthened.

It is not to be supposed that these *six acts* would be allowed to pass without strong opposition from the friends of liberty and the constitution. The debates that arose upon them took so comprehensive a turn, as to impart an unusual degree of interest. Earl Grey observed, that “much had been said of the necessity of coercion, but he held it to be of paramount importance that, in the general solicitude for the safety of the state, the constitution did not receive a shock which ages might not repair. There existed much discontent, certainly, and in the same proportion much danger; and this must be counteracted by efficient means; but the state of things afforded a strong presumption of misgovernment. For men, and Englishmen in

particular, were not so perversely constituted as wantonly to threaten the safety of the country. The system acted upon by ministers was calculated to produce hatred and discontent. He was far from approving the purpose of the Manchester meeting, or what was called "radical reform." Still he must consider it as a legal meeting, and the conduct of the magistrates such as called for the fullest investigation. He feared that ministers intended to pursue a system of unqualified coercion, and that new powers would be required, until at last all the principles of the constitution would be departed from." His lordship concluded a speech replete with wisdom and eloquence, by moving for an inquiry into the late proceedings at Manchester.

Mr Tierney, on making a similar motion in the house of commons, avowed his opinion, that "one great cause of the present discontents was the want of public confidence in that house. This was not confined to any class, and much less to that called the radicals; and a reform in the representation was the only effectual remedy. But if the object was, by new laws and military force, to stop the progress of reason, the country was indeed arrived at a dreadful crisis. Without inquiry, the country would not be satisfied—it was the duty of that house to inquire. Redress, in the ordinary way, was not open to the sufferers. How could the multitude obtain redress in a court of law against the magistrates? It was idle to talk of it."

Sir Francis Burdett said, "The question was not whether such meetings as that at Manchester were desirable or proper, but whether they afforded a sufficient cause to subject the people to military execution. Did the riot act say, that if the people did not instantly disperse, they were to be sabred, and no inquiry made? No: it said you were to give them warning, to read the act, and allow them time to disperse. Danger was apprehended from allowing the people to meet in large bodies; but when they met in small bodies to petition for reform, it was asserted that no interest was taken in the subject by the bulk of the community. Whatever speculative doctrines of reform in parliament were professed, he doubted not but the nation at large would be satisfied with any reform that should establish an effectual control over the administration of government, through the commons' house of parliament." These and similar reasonings, however, had little weight: lord Castlereagh in the commons, and lord Sidmouth in the house of peers, threw the shield of Hector around the Manchester magistrates, and all inquiry was quashed by the usual triumphant majorities.

Against some of these bills, however, very forcible protests were entered on the journals of the lords, and particularly against that for punishing libel by *transportation*: a horrid penalty, mitigated in its passage through the commons to banishment for life! "The offence," it was remarked, "is more than any other undefined and uncertain: so that

the author of any writing, dictated by the purest intention, on a matter of public interest, may expose himself to the penalty of this act, against which no degree of caution can afford him complete security." This bill, therefore, the protesting lords denounce "as inconsistent with the policy of our law and the practice of our ancestors; and a most dangerous invasion of the liberty of the press." This protest was signed by the duke of Sussex, and fifteen other peers.

While these acts were in a course of operation, it was announced that the health of the king, which had hitherto been good for his age, was on the decline. That decline, when it once commenced, proved to be rapid. On the 23d of January 1820, the public mind received a severe shock by the death of his fourth son, the duke of Kent, who expired at Sidmouth, in Devonshire, after a very short illness, much esteemed and lamented, leaving an infant daughter to the care of an accomplished but disconsolate mother. The regrets excited by the loss of this illustrious prince were speedily absorbed in the greater grief occasioned by the tidings from Windsor, which foretold the approaching dissolution of his august father; while the illness of the prince regent himself at this crisis tended still more to augment the general gloom.

On Saturday the 29th of that month, the long and eventful career of the monarch, who had attained his eighty-second year, terminated by a quiet and almost insensible dissolution, about

thirty-five minutes past eight in the evening. The duchess of Gloucester, and the princesses Augusta and Sophia, who had been unremitting in their attentions to their venerable parent, were at this time in the palace; and the duke of York watched with filial solicitude by the side of his couch. On that prince devolved the duty of announcing the mournful event to the regent, who on the 31st of January was proclaimed king with the usual solemnities, having now governed the kingdom for nine years in the name and on the behalf of his royal father.

As the character of George III. has been placed in very different lights, it may be interesting to the reader to have it presented to his view, first as it has been represented by one set of politicians, and afterwards to state the opposite account. In the language or the opinion of his admirers, "the late king had an excellent understanding, and was a good judge both of men and things. His talents for government were respectable, and he exercised them with the happiest effect, even in perturbed and critical times. Having traced in his mind the outlines of royal duty, he filled up the intervening space with the skill of a political artist. In entering upon the American war, he was actuated solely by a sense of justice; he thought himself bound to curb the refractory spirit of the colonists, and to use force when persuasions and remonstrances had failed. Into the war with revolutionary France he was impelled by an idea of imperious necessity, as the

career of the democratic opposers of Louis XVI. menaced the best institutions of other countries with subversion ; and such was his firmness, that he was not deterred from his object even by the long continued success of the enemy. With equal resolution he checked the effervescence of zeal among the votaries of reform in Great Britain, and saved the state from that mischief which would have been produced by the schemes of profligate and violent Jacobins. He also displayed his spirit to advantage, when the whigs at different times endeavoured to subject him to their sway. On the other hand, when conciliation was expedient, and when the voice of the senate corresponded with that of the people, he could yield with a good grace and with dignified complacency. His private character was so exemplary, that it may be quoted as a model of virtue. He was attentive to religious observances, both public and private ; correct in his own morals, and studious of the morality of others ; mild and unassuming in his demeanour, courteous, gracious, and affable ; humane, beneficent, and liberal, while he was temperate and economical in his personal habits. In short, his conduct both as a king and as a man deserves the highest praise, and entitles his memory to our esteem and veneration."

Such is the favourable side of the picture, as viewed through the medium of political partiality : The following is a somewhat different estimate of royal merit.



“ This monarch was not highly favoured by nature ; for his understanding was narrow, and his talents did not soar above mediocrity. If he had moved in the ranks of private life and of ordinary society, he would not have been considered as any other than a man of very limited powers. His acquirements from education were also scanty and imperfect. His mother was of opinion, that *book-learning* was altogether insignificant ; and it does not appear that his studies were well directed, or pointed to pursuits worthy of a prince. He was not properly tutored in history or in politics ; nor was he guided to an intelligent survey of the affairs of the world, or the characters of mankind. He could manufacture a button, or draw the model of a house, but could not write a tolerable letter. He could comprehend a plain statement, but could not understand a complicated argument, or enter into the *rationale* of the English constitution. In his youth he fell into the hands of bigotted tories, who having no expansion of intellect, only inspired him with high notions of royal supremacy. Thus instructed, he had no *leaning* to those principles which had placed his family on the throne. He had imbibed as unfavourable an opinion of the advocates of freedom as Charles II. entertained of all mankind ;— he fancied that they were base and unprincipled, and deemed his power unsafe in the hands of such statesmen. He did not possess that comprehensiveness of mind which could fathom the

depths of policy, or qualify him to govern like an enlightened prince ; yet by the aid of common sense, unperverted, he might have governed much better than he did. The American war is a foul blot upon his fame ; not only for its original injustice, but for the mischievous consequences to which it led, as the parent of the French revolution. Many will think (and it is difficult to disprove the inference) that no prince who had a due sense of religion or of equity, could have rushed into such a war, or have prosecuted it with such unfeeling obstinacy. To ravage a country with fire and sword, and send savages, like blood-hounds, to hunt down his colonial subjects, because they were desirous of being governed by the constitutional maxims of the mother-country, were not the acts of a pious, just, or benevolent prince. Nor can the war with France, which the late king carried on with equal zeal, be defended upon equitable principles. He had no right to violate the independence of another state, or to dictate terms of accommodation at the point of the bayonet. Nor can the outrageous attack upon the Danes in resentment of the armed neutrality, or the bombardment of their capital for their wish to retain their fleet, be fairly or honourably vindicated. Other acts of arbitrary violence, the effect of which no courtly sophistry can elude, rise up in appalling array against the memory of our late sovereign, although he was styled "the best of kings." His character as a man has been warmly extolled ;

and he has been termed an excellent husband, father, master, and friend. As we do not dispute his general good-nature, we do not decidedly contradict these effusions of praise; but we may hint, that he would have been a better father, if he had repressed the licentiousness of some of his sons, instead of encouraging their wantonness of disposition by grants from a fund not very honourably acquired, which, if used at all, ought to be appropriated to the public service; and we may also observe, that his boasted liberality, which was not very splendid, was displayed with little inconvenience, as his debts were constantly liquidated on demand by a compliant house of commons."

These delineations of the character of the late monarch are certainly at variance; but to which of them the praise of greater fidelity belongs, it is not for the present writer to decide. The venerable age, the protracted sufferings, the private and personal virtues of George III. with his still recent demise, render it both a difficult and an invidious task to attempt to sketch the political features of his reign with historic fidelity. It has been said of him on high authority, and we believe with equal truth, that "he would never do wrong, except when he mistook wrong for right." The notions of government originally infused into his mind by the earl of Bute, probably differed little from those which Charles I. learned from archbishop Laud, however modified in practice by the necessity of circumstances. But not to

enlarge on this topic, let us hear the opinions of a distinguished foreigner in relation to the matter:—

“ The accession of George III. was an actual political revolution in England. Pretenders were no more. The house of Hanover was established. The whigs were dismissed from administration, as troublesome observers no longer wanted. The government was again seized by the tories, those friends of power, who have ever since kept it, to the great detriment of public liberty. Yet the king was personally a friend to law and justice, and sincerely wished the welfare and prosperity of the country.” It was however unhappy for the country, that the counsels by which he was habitually swayed were subversive of the purposes which he had in contemplation. It cannot be denied that it was owing chiefly to the efforts of Great Britain, that the fallen house of Bourbon, which for ages had been hostile to England, were reinstated in what the advocates of the war styled their legitimate rights. Nor was this the only unfavourable result of the late protracted war: it has tended to promote, in an extraordinary and alarming degree, the aggrandizement of the power of Russia, accompanied with an insatiable desire of farther acquisitions, to which no adequate barrier can be opposed. And if to these things we add the unparalleled magnitude of the debt which the country has contracted—a debt so enormous in its amount, that the resources of the nation, vast as they were, seem to

be absorbed and exhausted by it—we must at least allow, that however amiable the personal character of George III. and however upright his intentions, his reign must rank amongst the most unfortunate that Great Britain has known since the Revolution.

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